

FRONTISPIECE



FRONTISPIECE



Ch. 780/3.
A NEW

ROMAN HISTORY,

FROM THE

FOUNDATION OF ROME

To the End of the

COMMON-WEALTH.

Embellished with Copper-Plate CUTS.

Designed for the Use of

Young LADIES and GENTLEMEN.

L O N D O N :

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P R E F A C E.

THE principal advantage derived from the study of History, is the knowledge of men and things. We there see mankind rising suddenly to the highest pitch of glory and grandeur, and in an instant falling again into obscurity: we are there taught, that virtue only is the true source of happiness; and that, however prosperous and triumphant vice and wickedness may be for a time, it will at last sink beneath the influence of truth and justice.

We may look upon History as the first master that children should have, equally fit to amuse and instruct them, to form their minds and hearts, and enrich their memories with an infinite number of facts as agreeable as useful. It is even very conducive, by the allurements of pleasure, which is inseparable from it, to excite the curiosity of that age eager to learn, and give them a taste for study. It is therefore, in point of education, a fundamental principle, and observed in all times, that the study of History ought to go before all others, and pave the way to them. Plutarch tells us, that the old Cato, that celebrated Censor, whose name and virtues have done so much honour to the Roman republic, and who took a particu-

lar care to bring up his son, himself, without relying upon the care of masters, composed purposely for him, and wrote with his own hand, in large letters, entertaining pieces of history: hence, said he, that child, from the lowest age, could, without quitting his father's house, get acquainted with the great men of his country, and found himself upon those ancient patterns of probity and virtue.

The age we live in, and this nation in particular, stand much in need of being undeceived in an infinite number of errors, and false prejudices, which almost every day increase, with respect to Poverty and Riches, Modesty and Pomp, the Simplicity of Buildings and Furniture, Costliness and Magnificence, Frugality, and the refined Arts of Cookery: in a word, concerning almost every thing, which makes the object of the contempt or admiration of mankind. The public taste herein becomes the rule of young people, who cannot but think that valuable, which is valued by all; for it is not reason, but custom, that guides them. One bad example alone would be capable of corrupting the minds of young people, susceptible of every impression. What is not, therefore, to be feared from them in a time, wherein vices are grown into custom, and sensuality exerts her utmost endeavours to extinguish all sentiments of Honour and Probity?

The chief end in the study of History is to dispel the false prejudices which seduce us, because they please us; to cure and set us free from the vulgar errors, which we have gradually

ally imbibed from our infancy ; to learn us to discern the true from the false, the good from the bad, and to distinguish between solid Greatness and vain pride.

There is no History, of what age or nation soever, which affords such a variety of characters, such subjects for reflection, as that of the Romans. These considerations induced me to set about the following little Book, for the use of young Ladies and Gentlemen, on a Plan different from any thing of the kind that has yet appeared. It cannot be expected, in so short a compass as this Work is comprised, that the Reader will here find a regular account of all the transactions of the Romans, from the building of the city to the fall of that great Empire. Those, who have attempted it, even in works of ten times this size, have produced little more than a Table of Names and Dates ; and this is an error, into which those, who have wrote for young Readers, have generally fallen : this is an error I shall endeavour to avoid. I shall begin the History with the Foundation of Rome, and bring it down to the time of Augustus : in the course of which, my principal aim shall be to notice the actions of those illustrious persons, whose names will be ever famous through every part of Europe, and even the remotest regions of the earth, where History shall be read. Above all, the young readers must remember, if they mean to derive any advantage from the perusal of this little Book, that they must read it with attention, reflect nicely on the characters they here meet with, the Rewards of
Virtue,

Virtue, and the Punishments of Vice; they must remark, by what means men became great and powerful, and how they afterwards lost their credit and authority. By making such reflections as these, they will soon acquire a taste for the study of useful History, will become an ornament to their country, will grow in love with Virtue, Honour and Prudence, and be a comfort and a blessing to their Parents and friends.

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A NEW
ROMAN HISTORY.

C H A P. I.

*From the Foundation of Rome to the End of
the regal Government.*

THE Roman empire, so inconsiderable in its beginning, but extensive in its progress, (to a degree not to be equalled throughout all the nations that have existed) received its foundation from Romulus, who was the twin brother of Rhemus, by their mother, a Vestal virgin. Their father, according to the ignorance and superstition of those times, was the god Mars. He lived at first, among the shepherds by plundering, and afterwards, at the age of eighteen, founded a small city on the Palatine hill, in the year of the world 3251.

Romulus having founded this city, which, from his own name, he called *Rome*, admitted a number of the neighbouring inhabitants into the government, selected a hundred of the

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oldest,

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oldest, by whose advice he might transact every thing, and named them Senators, on account of their age. Finding himself and people then without wives, he invited the neighbouring states to a show of sports; and, while the Sabine virgins were fixed attentively on the sight, Romulus gave the signal, when immediately the Romans carried off 683 virgins, and married them. Wars ensued, in consequence of this violence offered to the damsels; but he soon conquered the surrounding states.

Romulus was said to have disappeared in a tempest, which arose on a sudden, in the thirty-seventh year of his reign; and, being thought to have ascended to the gods, was afterwards deified. However, it is more probable, that he was murdered by the senate, to whom his growing tyranny was become intolerable. The senators then governed at Rome by turns, for five days each, and, under their administration, a whole year was compleated.

Numa Pompilius was afterwards created king, who, though he did not delight in war, being engaged in none during the whole course of his reign, was of no less service to the state than Romulus; for he established both laws and customs among the Romans, who, from a habit of fighting, were now looked upon as little better than robbers and barbarians. He divided the year, before undistinguished by any computation, into ten months, and founded an infinite number of sacred rites and temples at Rome. He died of sickness at fourscore years of age, and was buried with great solemnity.



solemnity, being laid in a stone coffin, and not burnt, according to the custom of the Romans.

He was succeeded in the regal authority by Tullus Hostilius, who recommenced hostilities, and subdued the Albi, and other neighbouring nations. He enlarged Rome by the addition of mount Cælius, which was appointed for the residence of the people who were brought from Alba, to whom the king granted all the Roman privileges. He incorporated the Alban nobility with the senate, and, after having reigned thirty-two years, perished in a conflagration of his own house by lightning, with his whole family; but, more probably, by the wicked conspiracies of those, whom neither reason nor philosophy could influence in those barbarous ages.

After him Ancus Martius, Numa's grandson by a daughter, took upon him the government: he fought against the Latins, added the Aventine mount and Janiculum to the city, built the city of Ostia on the sea-shore, and died a natural death in the twenty-fourth year of his reign.

Tarquinius Priscus next assumed the sovereignty; he doubled the number of senators, built a Circus, and instituted the Roman games; he also vanquished the Sabines, added a large portion of land, which had been taken from them, to the Roman territories, and was the first that entered the city in triumph. He made common sewers, to drain the city of the filth, and carry it into the Tyber; and it is to this prince, perhaps, we are ori-

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ginally indebted for that useful invention. He had acquired the supreme authority by means not to be justified : and, however justly he may have supported his conduct as a sovereign, yet even that will not excuse the manner in which he obtained it. The two sons of Ancus Martius, (the late king) enraged to see Tarquin possessed of the kingdom, disguised several of their companions like shepherds, who, going to court, pretended a quarrel, and demanded justice of the king. Tarquin appearing, they slew him and fled ; but, being apprehended soon after, were punished with death. This happened in the thirty-eighth year of his reign.

After him Servius Tullius took upon him the government, being descended from a woman of noble extraction, though a captive and a slave. He also vanquished the Sabines, added three hills to the city, and surrounded the wall with a ditch. He was the first that ordained the Census, which had been till then unknown throughout the whole world : their business was, to take a survey of the people, their effects, &c. in order to an equal taxation, and to make them serve occasionally in the wars. Upon this survey it appeared that Rome contained, though the city had not been built much more than 176 years, 84,000 citizens. He fell a victim, in the forty-fourth year of his reign, to the cruelty of his own son-in-law, Tarquin the Proud, son to that king whom he himself had succeeded, and of his
own

own daughter, whom Tarquin had received in marriage.

Lucius Tarquin the Proud, the seventh and last of the Roman kings, vanquished the Volsci, a nation not far from Rome, and reduced other cities. He was justly deprived of his crown for his tyranny and cruelty; but the following circumstance brought that revolution about.

While Tarquin was encamped before Ardea, the capital of the Rutuli, whom he was then at war with, Sextus, his eldest son, who was as lewd and cruel as his father, fell in love with Lucretia, the wife of Tranquinius Collatinus, and daughter of Spurius Lucretius Triepitinus, a very illustrious citizen of Rome. Collatinus carried Sextus and others to his house at Collatia, in order to give them a sight of Lucretia, and the next day returned with them to the camp. But Sextus, now enflamed with Lucretia's beauty, went privately to Collatia, where he was entertained with great hospitality by that lady, and lodged in her house. In the dead of night, he found means to convey himself into her bed-chamber; when, drawing near to her bedside, with his drawn sword, and thrusting his hands into her bosom, protested he would kill her that instant if she made the least noise. The unhappy Lucretia, thus awakened from her peaceful slumbers, and seeing the instrument of death before her, was seized with the utmost horror and confusion.

At first, Sextus had recourse to entreaties; but, these not availing, he declared that, if she refused to consent, he would first murder

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her, and then lay his own slave dead by her side; that he would afterwards spread a report, that he had killed them both in the act of adultery. The ill fated Lucretia, terrified at these threats, yielded to his impious wishes, and Sextus left her the next morning.

Lucretia, stung to the soul at this barbarous treatment, sent for her father and her husband, with whom came Publius Valerius and Junius Brutus. They found her involved in despair, and drowned in tears. She related the whole story, and, rejecting all thoughts of consolation, conjured them to revenge her injuries. After this, to give them the strongest proof she could of her chastity, she stabbed herself to the heart. The youthful reader must here be cautioned, that this last act of Lucretia was by no means meritorious, and could be justified only by the barbarous age she lived in.

Brutus her father, and Collatinus her husband, raised an insurrection among the common people on that account, and deprived Tarquin of the government. The army too, soon after, which was besieging the city of Ardea, with their king, deserted him; and the king himself, on his arrival at Rome, found the gates shut against him, without hope of admittance. Thus, after he had reigned five-and-twenty years, he was banished with his wife and children.

This happened in the year of the world 3596; 245 years from the building of the city; thirty-one years after the ruin of the Babylonian empire, and the setting up of the Persian, and 507 before the birth of our Saviour.

C H A P.

C H A P. II.

*From the Commencement of the Consular State to
the Year of Rome 331.*

FROM this time two consuls began to be created in the room of one king ; for this reason, that if one of them should entertain any ill designs upon the state, the other, being invested with equal authority, might restrain him : and it was enacted, that they should not hold the government for more than one year, lest by the continuance of their power, they should be rendered insolent ; whereas they were likely to act with moderation, when they knew that, within a year's time, they were to be reduced to the level of private persons.

In the first year after the expulsion of the kings, Lucius Junius Brutus, who had been the principal means of Tarquin's banishment, and Tarquin Collatinus, Lucretia's husband, were elected consuls. However, the latter was soon deprived of that dignity ; for it was enacted, that no one, or the name of Tarquin, should remain in Rome. Accordingly, having received all his patrimony, he quitted the city, and Valerius Publicola was created consul in his stead. King Tarquin, however, who had been expelled, made war upon Rome ; and, having drawn together many nations, endeavoured to reinstate himself in his kingdom by force.

In

In the first battle, Brutus and Arunx, Tarquin's son, slew each other; but the Romans came off victorious in that fight. The Roman matrons mourned a whole year for Brutus, because he had so valiantly revenged the death of the injured Lucretia. Valerius Publicola chose Spurius Lucretius Tricipitinus, Lucretia's father, for his colleague, who dying of sickness, he next chose for his colleague Horatius Pulvillus. Thus the first year had five consuls: Tarquinius Collatinus withdrawing from the city on account of his name, Brutus falling in battle, and Spurius Lucretius dying of sickness.

Tarquin, having fled to Porsena, king of Tuscia, prevailed with that prince to undertake his defence. Accordingly Porsena, being arrived at the head of a powerful army before Rome, in order to restore Tarquinius Superbus, gained some advantage in the first attack, and there remained only one bridge to be taken, which would have made him master of the city. At this instant, Horatius, accompanied by two officers of great distinction, defended, singly, the passage with great bravery, till his own party had broke down the bridge; after which he plunged, armed, into the Tiber, and, though wounded in the thigh by a spear, swam over to his friends.

Soon after, Mutius Cordus desired leave from the senate to go to Porsena's camp, where he promised to murder that prince. The senate consenting, Mutius disguised himself in a Tuscan habit, and, being a master of the language, went over to the enemy's army, where,
instead

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instead of Porsena, with whom he was not personally acquainted, he killed his secretary.

Mutius was that instant seized, and carried before the king; and, on his examination, instead of making any answer, he thrust his right hand into the fire, saying, he punished it in that manner, because it had done him no better service. The king, being at once surprised and moved with compassion, ordered him to withdraw it, and himself returned him his sword.

Mutius taking it with his left hand, said to the king: "Thy generosity has conquered him, whom fear never could. You have won my heart, and I will now discover to you, (as a just tribute of gratitude which I owe you) a secret, which force could not have extorted. There are in the camp three hundred Romans, equally intrepid as myself, who have all taken an oath to destroy you. I was appointed first to attempt the blow: I am not sorry I failed in it, since so magnanimous a prince as Porsena ought to be the friend and ally of the Romans, not their enemy."

Porsena, struck with this generous declaration, immediately concluded a peace with the Romans, to the no small mortification of Tarquin, who, now finding all hopes were lost of being restored to his kingdom, and that Porsena would no longer afford him any assistance, retired to Tusculum, a city not far from Rome, and lived there with his wife, for fourteen years, as a private person, and died in a good old age.

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In the fourth year after the expulsion of the kings, the Sabines, making war upon the Romans, were vanquished, and a triumph granted upon that account. Lucius Valerius, the colleague of Brutus, and now a fourth time consul, died a natural death, and so poor, that the expences of his funeral were defrayed by contributions raised among the people, and the matrons bewailed his death for a whole year, which was the same tribute they had before paid to the memory of Brutus. His poverty arose, not from luxury and extravagance, like that of all the great men of modern times, but from his love of his country. How happy would England be, could she imitate the virtues of the Roman people!

In the ninth year after the expulsion of the kings, Tarquin's son-in-law, having raised a powerful army, in order to revenge Tarquin's injuries, a new magistracy, called the Dictatorship, more powerful than the consulate, was created. From him lay no appeal, being invested with absolute power for a limited time. In the same year too was created a master of the horse, who was to be under the direction of the dictator.

In the sixteenth year after the expulsion of the kings, the people raised a sedition at Rome, under a pretence of being oppressed by the senate and consuls. They then created themselves tribunes of the people, as it were for their own proper judges and protectors, by whose means they might be secured against the senate and the consuls.

In

In the eighteenth year after the expulsion of the kings, the Romans lost several battles, and their city was near being taken, by Quintus Marcius, one of their own countrymen, who had raised an army in the neighbouring kingdoms; but was at last, by his mother and wife, persuaded to draw off his troops.

Cæso Fabius and Titus Virginius being consuls, three hundred noblemen of the family of the Fabii, alone undertook the war against the Veientes, promising the senate and people, that they would carry on the whole dispute by themselves. Marching out therefore to battle, all of them being persons of noble extraction, and each of whom deserved to be the leader of a powerful army, they fell in the fight. One only remained of so numerous a family, who, on account of his tender years, could not be led forth to war. After this the Census was held in the city, and there were found to be 119,000 Roman citizens.

The year following, the Roman army being blocked up in mount Algidum, Lucius Quintus Cincinnatus was created dictator, who, possessing a spot of ground, of about four acres, cultivated it with his own hands. He was found ploughing in the fields, and, having wiped off the sweat from his brow, he was invested with the consular habit, then went and defeated the enemy, and delivered the army.

CHAP III.

From the Year of Rome 331, to the first Punic or Carthaginian War.

AT this time the consular government ceased, and, instead of two consuls, ten magistrates, named the Decemviri, were created, in whom the supreme power was to be lodged. After they had acted with reputation for the first year, in the second, one of them, named Appius Claudius, attempted to debauch a young lady, daughter to one Virginius, who had already served with reputation in the wars; but her father murdered her with his own hands, that she might not suffer violence from the Decemvir, and, returning to the army, raised an insurrection among the soldiers. Upon this the Decemviri were deprived of their authority, and they themselves condemned.

Soon after the Gauls marched towards Rome, and pursuing the Romans, whom they had defeated at about ten miles distance from the city, made themselves masters of the city itself, nor could any thing hold out against them but the capitol; which, when they had besieged a long time, and the Romans began now to be oppressed with famine, Camillus, who lived in banishment, came suddenly upon them, and overthrew them with very great slaughter. The Gauls had reduced the city to ashes, and would have made themselves masters of the capitol by surprise, had not the cackling of the sacred geese

geese alarmed the garrison. The Romans; however, agreed to pay the Gauls a thousand pounds weight of gold; and the latter using false dealings in their weighing, a contest arose, when Camillus, taking the gold out of the scales, told the Gauls, that it was the custom of the Romans to free their country with iron, not with gold. Immediately a bloody battle ensued, in which the Gauls were so entirely routed, that all the Roman territories were soon cleared of them.

In the three hundred and sixty-fifth year from the building of the city, but the first after its being taken by the Gauls, the form of government underwent a change; and, instead of two consuls, military tribunes, invested with consular power, were created. From this time the Roman empire began immediately to gather strength.

In the year 422, a conspiracy was discovered to the senate, by a female slave, of several women of quality, who had undertaken to poison their husbands. Twenty of them being examined, with regard to the quality of the draughts found in their custody, they obstinately denied their being poison; but, being forced to try the experiment upon themselves, they died soon after. Besides these, 170 were executed publickly, who had poisoned some of the first people in the state.

I shall pass over the several battles lost and won by the Romans, and come to their wars with the Tarentines. This people lived at the distance of 240 miles from Rome, and were

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the last of the Italians, who made a vigorous opposition to the Romans. The Tarentines, being almost conquered, called in Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, to their assistance, who derived his origin from the race of Achilles. He immediately passed over into Italy; and it was then, for the first time, that the Romans fought with a foreign enemy. Publius Valerius Laevinus, the consul, was sent out against him, who, taking some of Pyrrhus's spies prisoners, ordered them to be led through the camp, and the whole army to be shown them, and the spies then to be dismissed, that they might inform Pyrrhus of what was doing among the Romans.

A battle being fought soon after, Pyrrhus, when, on the point of flying, conquered by means of his elephants, which the Romans, being unacquainted with, were afraid of; but night put an end to the battle. Pyrrhus lost 13,000 men, the Romans 15,000, and 1800 were taken prisoners, whom Pyrrhus treated with the greatest honour. He gave their dead honourable interment; and, observing that they looked stern and menacing even in death, he lifted up his hands to heaven, and cried, "How easily might the whole world be conquered, were the Romans commanded by Pyrrhus!"

Pyrrhus afterwards, in conjunction with the Samnites, Lucanians and Brutians, advanced towards Rome, laid all waste with fire and sword, depopulated Campania, and arrived at Præneste, about seventeen miles distant from Rome;

Rome; but soon after retired to Campania, for fear of the army, which pursued him with a consul at their head. Ambassadors being dispatched to Pyrrhus, to treat with him about ransoming the prisoners, they were honourably entertained by him, and the prisoners, without any ransom, sent back to Rome. Fabricius, one of the ambassadors, he admired so much, that, understanding he was poor, he endeavoured to win him over by services, and made him considerable offers; which were rejected by Fabricius with disdain.

There is something so particularly great in this Roman, and so contrary to every thing we meet with in these times, that it is not even the narrow limits of this epitome, that can induce me to pass over in silence the speech of Fabricius to Pyrrhus.

“ It would be needless, (said Fabricius) for me to mention the experience I have had in state affairs, as well as in those of a private nature, since you have been told these things by others. You also seem to be so well informed of my poverty, that there will be no occasion for me to acquaint you, that I have neither money to put out to interest, nor slaves to produce me any income, all my wealth consisting of a little house, and a small field, which yields sufficient for my subsistence. Though I am not possessed of a considerable estate, I never thought, nor can yet think, that my poverty ever did me the least injury, when I consider myself as one who shares in the public posts, or as a private man. I am raised to

the highest dignities, I am placed at the head of the most illustrious embassies, I assist at the most august ceremonies, and am entrusted with the most holy functions of divine worship. When affairs of the highest importance are to be debated, I have my seat in council, and give my opinion in them. I am on a level with those, who boast the greatest wealth and power; and, if I have the least cause for complaint, it is, that I am too much applauded, and too highly honoured by my fellow citizens.

“ During my enjoyment of these several employments, I am not obliged, any more than other Romans, to expend my own money; for Rome amply rewards her citizens, who toil for the public good. We are all wealthy, so long as the commonwealth enjoys affluence; because it is rich only for us. By indiscriminately admitting to public employments both rich and poor, according as men are judged worthy of them, all the citizens are thereby reduced to a level. Rome knows no other difference or distinction than that of virtue and merit.

“ With regard to my fortune, so far from repining at it, I look upon myself as the happiest of men, when I compare my condition to that of the rich, and I even feel, on this occasion, a kind of complacency and pride. My little field, though not over fruitful, furnishes me sufficiently with all things necessary, provided I do but bestow the proper culture, and preserve the produce of it. Do I need any thing more? All food, when seasoned by hunger, is agreeable to me. When I am parched
with

with thirst, it is luxury to quench it; and, when I am fatigued, I taste the sweets of sleep with exquisite pleasure. I content myself with a suit that shelters me from the inclemency of the weather; and, among the several moveables, which may be of like use, the meanest always suit me best.

“ It would be unjust in me to accuse fortune, since she furnishes me with all that nature requires. It is indeed true, that, for want of this affluence, I am prevented assisting the necessitous, which is the only advantage for which the opulent may justly be envied. Even with my little, I assist where that little can be of service, and I do my fellow citizens all the service in my power.

“ The thought of accumulating riches never once entered my mind. Being employed so many years in the government, I had a thousand opportunities of amassing great treasures, without the least reproach to my integrity. Could a more favourable one be desired, than that which presented itself some years since, when, invested with the consular dignity, I was ordered to march, at the head of a powerful army, against the Samnites, the Lucanians and Brutii? I laid waste a vast tract of ground, I defeated the enemy in several battles, stormed many rich cities, enriched the whole army with plunder, paid to every citizen the money he had disbursed towards defraying the expences of the war, and, after being honoured with a triumph, deposited four hundred talents in the public treasury.

“ After having neglected so considerable a booty, part of which I might have applied to my own use; after contemning riches that have been so justly acquired, and sacrificed, to a love of glory, spoils taken from the enemy, would it become me, O king, to accept of your gold? What opinion would mankind entertain of me, and what an example should I set to my fellow-citizens? I therefore advise you to keep your riches, and leave me in possession of my poverty and reputation.”

The next day, Pyrrhus, trying all methods to unsettle the mind of Fabricius, ordered one of his largest elephants, completely armed, to be placed behind the hangings; and, in the midst of their conversation, the tapestry was drawn aside, when the elephant, raising his trunk over the head of Fabricius, set up a hideous roar. Fabricius, though he had never before seen this animal, was not in the least intimidated, but turning gently about, and smiling, “ Neither your gold yesterday, (said he) nor your terrible animal to-day, can make the least impression upon me.”

Pyrrhus, being struck with the greatest admiration of the Romans, dispatched one Cincas, the principal person about him, to sue for peace upon reasonable terms; which were, that Pyrrhus should remain possessed of that part of Italy, which he had already made himself master of arms.

These terms displeased the Romans, and answer was sent back by the senate, that he could have no peace with the Romans, unless
he

he retired out of Italy. The Romans then ordered, that all the prisoners, whom Pyrrhus had sent back, should be deemed infamous, as being persons, who might have defended themselves by arms, and never to be restored to their former condition, till they had produced the spoils of some enemies, whom they were known to have slain.

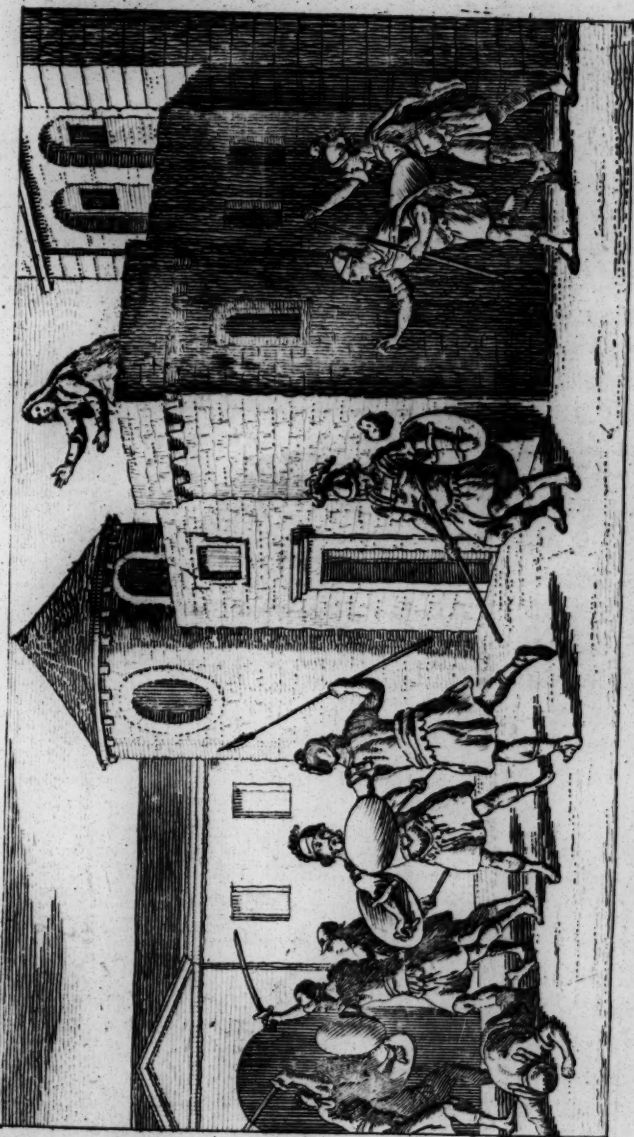
The ambassador of Pyrrhus returned, and being asked by him what kind of a place Rome was, Cineas replied, that he had seen a nation of kings; that is to say, that all there were such as Pyrrhus alone was thought to be in Epirus, and the rest of Greece. Publius Sulpicius, and Decius Mus, the consuls, being afterwards sent out generals against Pyrrhus, and a battle being fought, Pyrrhus was wounded, his elephants killed, and 20,000 of his men slain. Of the Romans there fell only 5000, and Pyrrhus was driven to Tarentum. We may hence observe that, with all the modern inventions for the destruction of mankind in battle, the slaughter of these times is but a shadow of that of former ages.

The year after, Fabricius was sent out against Pyrrhus, the same who, being before among the ambassadors, could not be won by the offers of that prince. Their camp lying at no great distance, Pyrrhus's physician came to Fabricius by night, offering to dispatch Pyrrhus by poison, if he would reward him for it.

Fabricius instantly ordered him to be bound, and carried back to his master, and that Pyrrhus should be informed what proposals the physician

physician had made against his life. The king was so struck with admiration, that he is reported to have said, "Fabricius is a person of such virtue, that it is more difficult to divert him from the paths of honour, than the sun from his course."

Pyrrhus then departed for Sicily, and Fabricius, having defeated the Samnites and Lucanians, obtained a triumph. Manlius Curius Dentatus, and Cornilius Lentulus, the consuls, were then ordered against Pyrrhus; and Curius fought him, cut off his army, drove him to Tarentum, and took his camp. Of the enemy 23,000 were slain that day, and Curius Dentatus triumphed in his consulate. He was the first that brought elephants to Rome, of which he took four. Pyrrhus soon after retired to Tarentum, and was slain at Argos, a city of Greece, by a large stone thrown upon his head, from the walls, by the hand of a woman, whose son he was on the point of killing in the attack.





CHAP. IV.

From the Commencement of the first Punic War to the End of the Second.

IN the four hundred and seventy-seventh year from the building of the city, though the name of Rome was now become famous, yet their arms had not been carried out of Italy. That it might be known, therefore, what the forces of the Romans were, a survey was taken, and the number of citizens appeared to be 262,333, though they had hardly ever ceased from wars since the building of the city; and the first foreign war was declared against the Africans, Appius Claudius and Quintus Fulvius being consuls. These fought against them in Sicily, and Appius Claudius triumphed over the Africans and Hiero king of Sicily.

In the year following great things were done by the Romans, who received fifty cities more into alliance.

In the fifth year of the Punic war, which was carried on against the Africans, the Romans first fought by sea, having provided themselves with vessels properly armed. The consul Cornelius was trepanned by treachery; but Decilius, the other consul, giving them battle, defeated the Carthaginians, took thirty-one of their ships, sunk fourteen, made eight thousand prisoners, and killed three thousand more.

Never

Never was a victory more acceptable to the Romans, who, knowing themselves before invincible by land, now found they could do much by sea also. Caius Aquilius Floro, and Lucius Scipio, being consuls, the latter laid waste Corsica and Sardinia; carried away numbers of captives from thence, and obtained a triumph.

The Romans having taken seventy-four cities by surrender, the vanquished Carthaginians sued for peace, which Regulus refusing but upon the severest conditions, the Africans applied to the Lacedemonians for assistance; and, under their leader, Xantippus, Regulus was overthrown with a very great slaughter, two thousand men only remaining of all the Roman army: fifteen thousand, with Regulus their general, were taken prisoners, and thirty thousand slain. Regulus himself was thrown into prison.

The Romans, however, prosecuted the war, and at last obliged the Carthaginians to sue for peace. The latter sent Regulus, accompanied by their ambassadors, to Rome, to propose terms of peace to the senate. Regulus had suffered five years imprisonment in Carthage, and, before his departure from that city, he had been obliged to take an oath, that he would return to it, should he prove unsuccessful in his negotiations, or not obtain the desired exchange of prisoners.

On his arrival at Rome, he acquainted the senate with the business he came on; and, being required to give his opinion freely, he told them,

them, that he could not do that as a senator, having lost that character from the time he had become a prisoner : but that he would not hesitate to give his sentiments as a private person. Every bosom felt for his misfortunes, and he might have easily restored himself to liberty, to the possession of every thing desirable, his wife, his children, and his country : but it was inconsistent with the honour of a Roman. “ An exchange of prisoners (said Regulus to the senate) should not be so much as thought of, since an example of that nature would be of fatal consequence to you : those citizens, who so ingloriously surrendered themselves and their arms to their enemies, are unworthy of the least pity, and ought never more to be employed in the service of their country. As to myself, I am so far advanced in years, that my death ought to be considered as nothing ; whereas you have in your hands several Carthaginian generals, in the prime of life, who are capable of doing great services to their country. I have so much the true spirit of a Roman, that I cannot do any thing that is base or dishonourable ; nor do I so much fear the tortures of a cruel rack, as the reproach of an infamous action : the former affects only the body, but the latter penetrates the soul.”

It was with no small difficulty the senate complied with such noble and disinterested advice, Regulus, however, left Rome, to return to Carthage, unmoved either with the deep sorrow of his friends, or the tears of his family,
 though

though he was sensible of the torments that were preparing for him.

The moment the Carthaginians saw Regulus return, without having obtained the exchange of prisoners, they put him to all kinds of torment cruelty could invent. They threw him into a horrible dungeon, there cut off his eyelids, and then threw him into the sun, when its beams darted the strongest heat. They next put him into a barrel stuck full of nails, whose points, piercing his flesh, allowed him not a moment's ease. At last, to compleat their cruelty, they nailed this noble Roman to a cross; where he expired. They shortened his life, it is true; but they brought eternal infamy on themselves.

The senate were so enraged at this piece of cruelty, that they delivered up some prisoners of the greatest distinction, to Marcia, his wife, who shut them into an armory filled with iron spikes, where she kept them five days together without sustenance, intending to torture them as her husband had been. The magistrates, however, relented at what they had permitted, and gave strict orders, that no captives should, for the future, be treated in that manner.

Publius Claudius Pulcher, and Caius Junius, being consuls, in the year of Rome 504, Claudius fought in opposition to the Auspices, and was defeated by the Carthaginians; for, of two hundred and twenty ships, he escaped with thirty only, ninety, together with their men, being taken, the rest sunk, and twenty thousand made prisoners. The other consul

lost

lost his fleet by shipwreck; but the army escaped by being near the shore.

However, the Romans were afterwards more fortunate, and obliged the Carthaginians to sue for peace. This put an end to the first Punic war, which had continued twenty-four years without intermission, in which the Romans are said to have lost 700 ships, and the Carthaginians only 500. The greatness of soul, in forming and executing exploits, were equally conspicuous in both, as was their obstinacy in disputing for empire. The Carthaginians were at that time deemed the most powerful by sea, and were the most expert in maritime affairs; but the Romans, though unexperienced in naval affairs, not only disputed the empire of the sea with a people, who had been deemed more powerful than any before them, but even conquered them in several sea engagements.

The peace, thus concluded between the Romans and Carthaginians, did not continue many years. Those states, who delight in war, are never at a loss to find pretences for breaking the peace. I shall not enter into the causes of the rupture between these two great people, it will be sufficient to observe, that, about the year 535 from the building of Rome, began the second Punic war, one of the most remarkable that is recorded in history; whether we consider the boldness of the enterprises, the wisdom employed in the execution, the obstinate efforts of two rival nations, and the ready resources they found in the utmost extremity

of fortune ; the variety of uncommon events ; the assemblage of the most perfect models in every species of merit, and the most instructive lessons that occur in history, with regard to war or politics. Rome and Carthage, the two first cities in the world, having already tried their strength in the first Punic war, now knew perfectly well what either could do. In this second war, the fate of arms was so equally balanced, and the success so intermixed with vicissitudes, that the party, which seemed most exposed to ruin, seemed most to triumph ; and, great as the forces of these two nations were, it may be almost said, that their mutual hatred was greater. It seems necessary here to advise the youthful reader, should this epitome induce him to pursue his historical enquiries in larger works, to spare no pains in studying this part of the Roman history.

Hannibal, the famous Carthaginian commander, undertook the management of the war, being then about 27 years of age. Having over-run all Spain to the Pyrenæan mountains, he crossed them with 50,000 foot and 9000 horse. Having passed the Rhine with great danger and difficulty, he at last came to the foot of the Alps, resolving from thence to cross into Italy.

The sight of these horrible mountains, it being then winter, struck the minds of the soldiers with terror. However, Hannibal, in spite of all difficulties, put the enemy to flight, and seized upon a fortress, and a considerable quantity of corn and cattle.

Advancing forward, they came to a steep and craggy path, which terminated in a precipice above a thousand feet deep. Here, as the soldiers and horses marched on nothing but ice, they found it impossible for them to go further; when Hannibal, after causing all the new-fallen snow to be removed, ordered a path to be cut into the rock, which was carried on with amazing patience and ardour; for the general always animated them by his presence.

Scipio, the Roman commander, hearing of Hannibal's progress, marched forward, and the armies met at a place now called Pavaia. Here a battle was fought, in which the Romans were put to flight, and were soon after vanquished a second time.

In a battle, which was afterwards fought between Flaminius and Hannibal, in the year 537 from the building of Rome, both parties fought with such an amazing animosity, that they did not perceive an earthquake which happened in Etruria, the seat of war at that time, and which laid whole towns in ruins. In this confusion, Flaminius was slain, with 15,000 Romans, 6000 were taken prisoners, and about 10,000 escaped to Rome.

Fabius was afterwards sent against Hannibal, who, by his prudent and cautious management, harassed Hannibal, and kept him in a perpetual alarm. After various marches Hannibal, without being able to bring the Romans to a battle, found himself blocked up in a valley surrounded by hills. Fabius, observing this, detached 4000 men, who seized the pass. Hannibal, now

finding himself blocked up, had recourse to a stratagem. He ordered small bundles of vine branches to be tied to the horns of 2000 oxen : the branches were set on fire in the dead of night, and the oxen drove to the summit of the hills, where the Romans were encamped. As soon as these creatures felt the flame, they flew up and down in a rage, and set fire to all the bushes and shrubs that fell in their way. This sight so terrified the party who guarded the entrance, that they quitted their posts; when Hannibal, taking the advantage of their confusion, drew off his army and escaped.

In the year 538 after the building of Rome, a desperate battle was fought between the Carthaginians and the Romans. Lucius Emilius and Publius Terentius Varro were sent to succeed Fabius against Hannibal. Fabius assured the two consuls, that there was no other way of conquering the Carthaginians, commanded by that crafty and impetuous general, Hannibal, than by declining an engagement. But, a battle being fought, through the obstinacy of Varro, the consul, in opposition to his colleague, near a village, called Cannæ in Apulia, both the consuls were defeated. In that fight 3000 of the Africans fell, and a great part of Hannibal's army was wounded. The Romans, however, never received such a blow in all the Punic war, for the consul Emilius Paulus fell in the battle, together with twenty others of consular and prætorian rank; thirty senators were taken or slain, 300 gentlemen of noble extraction,

40,000 foot, and 3500 horse: three bushels of golden rings were likewise said to be taken from them on this occasion. In the midst of all these calamities, not one, however, of the Romans condescended to mention a word about peace.

In the fourth year after Hannibal's arrival in Italy, Marcellus, the consul, engaged him with success, near Nola, a city of Campania. About this time, Philip, king of Macedon, sent ambassadors to Hannibal, promising him assistance against the Romans, provided that, when he had subdued them, he, in his turn, should receive assistance from Hannibal against the Grecians; but Philip's ambassadors being taken, and the affair thus discovered, they sent Marcus Valerius Lævinus to march against them; and Manlius, the proconsul, was sent into Sardinia, that state too, at the solicitation of Hannibal, having deserted the Romans. Thus they carried on a war in four different countries at one and the same time: in Italy against Hannibal, in Spain against Asdrubal, his brother, in Macedon against Philip, and, in Sardinia, against the people of that island, and another Asdrubal, who commanded the Carthaginians.

Various was the success of the war on both sides; but, in the fourteenth year after Hannibal's arrival in Italy, Scipio, who had performed so many gallant things in Spain, was created consul, and sent into Africa. In this man there was thought to be something divine, insomuch, that it was imagined he had converse

with the gods. He fought Hanno, the Carthaginian, in Africa, and destroyed his army. In a second battle he took his camp, together with 4500 soldiers, 11,000 being slain. Syphax, king of Numidia, who had joined the Africans, he took prisoner, and forced his camp. Syphax himself, with the noblest of the Numidians, and an immense booty, were sent to Rome; on advice of which almost all Italy forsook Hannibal, and he himself was ordered by the Carthaginians to return to Africa, which Scipio was laying waste.

In the seventeenth year after the arrival of Hannibal, Italy was delivered from him, which he is said to have quitted with tears. Ambassadors from the Carthaginians applied to Scipio for peace, by whom they were referred to the senate, and a truce of forty-five days were granted them to go to and return from Rome. Thirty thousand pounds weight of silver was accepted at their hands, and the senate ordered a peace to be concluded with the Carthaginians, on such terms as Scipio should think proper. Scipio's conditions were, that they should maintain no more than thirty ships, that they should pay the Romans 500,000 pounds weight of silver, amounting to about the value of 1,575,000*l.* sterling, and restore all the prisoners and deserters.

Hannibal, in the mean time, arriving in Africa, the peace was interrupted, and many hostilities committed by the Carthaginians. The war being carried on, Hannibal sent three spies into Scipio's camp, who, being taken,
Scipio

Scipio ordered them to be led round the camp, and the whole army shewn them, and then to be feasted and dismissed, that they might tell Hannibal what they had seen among the Romans.

In the mean time both generals prepared for a battle, such as had hardly ever been remembered, when the most skilful led forth their troops to war. Scipio was victorious, and Hannibal himself narrowly escaped being taken. He at first fled with several horse, which were at last reduced to only four. In this battle 20,000 Carthaginians were slain, and as many taken prisoners; 20,000 pounds weight of silver, and 800 of gold, with plenty of all sorts of stores, were found in Hannibal's camp. After this battle, a peace was concluded with the Carthaginians. Scipio, returning to Rome, triumphed with great glory, and began, from that time, to be called Africanus, an honour till then unknown, no person before him having assumed the name of a vanquished nation. Thus an end was put to the second Punic war, in the nineteenth year after its commencement.

It seems here highly necessary, notwithstanding the narrow limits to which I am confined, to point out a few reasons, how the Romans came to be so victorious, and the Carthaginians so unfortunate. Carthage, at the beginning of the second Punic war, and in Hannibal's time, was in its decline, the flower of its youth, and its sprightly vigour, being now in a hasty decay. It had begun to fall from its exalted pitch of power, and was inclining to-
wards

wards its ruin ; whereas Rome was then, as it were, in its bloom and strength of life, and swiftly advancing to the conquest of the universe. It is easy to see, that the declension of the one, and the rise of the other, was owing to the different form of government established in those republics, at the time we are speaking of. At Carthage every thing was in confusion, and the advice of the old and experienced was no longer listened to, every thing was transacted by intrigue and cabal. On the other hand, at this very time, the Romans paid the highest deference to the senate, which was composed of men, more remarkable for their wisdom than their riches. Hence it is no wonder, that the Romans, governed by the greatest sages, should completely conquer a rival, in a state of anarchy and confusion. May France, the Carthage of these modern times, ever fail in her attempt to sow those seditions among us, which at last conquered invincible Rome.

CHAP. V.

From the second Punic War to the Destruction of Carthage.

THE Punic wars, which had brought the Roman state almost to the brink of ruin, ended nevertheless to its advantage. The Romans began more and more to know the value of riches; and the polite arts flourished among them, in proportion as they grew better acquainted with the Greeks. The Punic war being concluded, the Romans carried their arms against Philip, king of Macedon.

In the year 551 from the building of the city, Titus Quintius Flaminius was ordered against king Philip. He managed matters successfully, and peace was granted to Philip on these conditions: that he should not make war upon the states of Greece, which had been defended against him by the Romans; that he should restore the prisoners and deserters, maintain only fifty vessels, and deliver up the rest to the Romans; for ten years pay a tribute of four thousand pounds weight of silver, and give his own son, Demetrius, for an hostage.

Flaminius made war also upon the Lacedemonians, defeated their general Nabis, and admitted them into an alliance, upon such terms as he thought proper, leading Demetrius, the son of Philip, and Armenes, the son of Nabis, hostages of noble extraction, in triumph before his chariot.

About

About the year 559, Plautus had his plays exhibited in Rome, where he brought comedy to great perfection, he being a considerable genius and a perfect master of the Latin tongue, which, though it was not then arrived to its utmost purity, boasted, even at that time, a noble strength and energy.

The Macedonian war being now finished, another was commenced against Antiochus, king of Syria, Publius Cornelius Scipio, and Marcus Glabrio, being then consuls at Rome. To this Antiochus, Hannibal had joined himself, having quitted Carthage, the place of his nativity, fearing he should be delivered to the Romans. Marcus Acilius Glabrio fought with success at Achaia, the camp of Antiochus being taken by storm in the night, and he himself obliged to fly. Philip, having assisted the Romans in this battle, had his son, Demetrius, restored to him.

Not long after, Scipio, the consul, pressed so hard upon Antiochus at Magnesia, that he was forced to draw out his army, consisting of 70,000 foot, and 12,000 horse, which Scipio attacked, though his force was very inconsiderable. The battle lasted, with great obstinacy, for some hours, when the Syrian troops were at last defeated; and the king's own chariots, which were armed with scythes, being driven back upon his soldiers, contributed very much to his overthrow. There fell this day, of the Syrian army, as well in the battle, as in the pursuit and plunder of the camp, 50,000 foot, and 4000 horse; 1400 were taken prisoners,

soners, with fifteen elephants and their guides. The Romans lost but 300 foot and twenty-four horse. This victory won the Romans all the cities of Asia Minor, which now submitted to them.

Antiochus then sued for peace, which was granted him upon the same conditions by the senate, though now vanquished, as were before offered: that he should retire out of Europe and Asia, and confine himself within the river Taurus, pay 10,000 talents, and give them twenty hostages; and that he should deliver up Hannibal, the author of the war.

Scipio returned to Rome, and triumphed with great glory. In imitation of his brother, he received the name of Asiaticus, because he had subdued Asia; as his brother, on account of his reduction of Africa, had received the name of Africanus.

Scipio Africanus, being afterwards accused by the senate of defrauding the treasury, withdrew to Linternum, a town of Campania, where he spent the rest of his days in cultivating the muses, and the conversation of learned men. He died the same year, and ordered words to the following purport to be engraved on his tomb: *Ungrateful country, thou shalt not possess my ashes!* Scipio Asiaticus was also accused of much the like crimes with his brother, but escaped punishment by the means of Gracchus. At this time luxury and indolence began insensibly to gain on the Romans, which is said to have been introduced by the army on their return from the wars of Asia,

As for Hannibal, after flying from place to place, to escape falling into the hands of the Romans, he at last sought an asylum in the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia. Hannibal making some stay there, that prince engaged him in the war with Eumenes, king of Pergamus. He gained for Prusias several battles by land and sea, when Hannibal imagined, that such important services would for ever secure him a faithful friend in that prince. The Romans, however, would not suffer him to rest any where: they dispatched Flaminius to Prusias, to complain of his protecting Hannibal. The latter knew too well the motive of this embassy, and therefore determined not to give his enemies the opportunity of delivering him up. He at first attempted his security by flight, but perceiving that the seven secret outlets, which he had contrived in his palace, were all seized by the soldiers of Prusias, who, by this treacherous action, hoped to ingratiate himself with the Romans, he ordered poison, which he had long kept for this melancholy occasion, to be brought him; and, taking it in his hand, ‘ Let us, (said he) free the Romans from a disquietude, with which they have been long tortured, since they have not patience to wait for the death of a man, whom old age has already overtaken. The victory, which Flaminius gains over a naked, betrayed man, will not do him much honour. This single day will be a lasting testimony of the great degeneracy of the Romans. Their forefathers sent notice to Pyrrhus, to caution him to guard against a
 traitor,

traitor, who intended to poison him, and that at a time when this prince was engaged in an obstinate war against them, in the very heart of Italy; but their inglorious sons have deputed a person of consular dignity, to spirit up Prusias impiously to murder one, who is not only his guest but his friend."

After calling down curses upon Prusias, and invoking the gods, the protectors and avengers of the sacred rights of hospitality, he swallowed the poison, and died in the seventieth year of his age, being buried at Libyssa, in the territories of the Nicomedians.

Thus fell, perhaps, one of the greatest generals the world ever produced, and to whom, during the seventeen years of the Punic war, only two faults are imputed: first, his not marching, immediately after the battle of Cannæ, his victorious forces to Rome, in order to besiege that city; and, secondly, his suffering their courage to be softened and enervated during their winter-quarters in Capua. But this only shews, that human nature is frail, and that the greatest have their errors. These failings, however, are totally absorbed in the shining parts of his character: he had that presence of mind, even in the heat and fire of action, to take all advantages; and, though his army consisted of so great a variety of nations, who were often in want both of money and provisions, yet, so artful was his management, that his camp was never once disturbed with any insurrection, either against himself, or any of his generals. He must have been

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very fruitful in expedients, to be able to carry on, for so many years, a war in a far distant country, in spite of the opposition made at home by a powerful faction, which refused him supplies of every kind, and thwarted him on all occasions. He was not only the warrior, but the statesman: so superior and universal was his genius, that he grasped all parts of government; and so great were his natural talents, that he was able to acquit himself of the various functions of it with glory. He shone as conspicuously in the cabinet, as in the field, being equally capable to fill civil or military employments. In a word, there were united in his person, the warrior, the senator, and the financier.

About the year 586 from the building of Rome, learning began to flourish much more than ever among the Romans, who had greatly improved themselves from their familiarity with the Greeks, and was very much encouraged by Scipio, (Emilius, the consul's son, adopted by the son of Africanus) and by Lælius, son to him who had formerly done signal services in Africa. Scipio and Lælius, who boasted the finest accomplishments, were the noble patrons of eloquence, poetry, and the polite arts. Under them flourished Terence, the famous comic poet, who wrote with vast accuracy, and very much improved the graces of the Roman tongue.

The inhabitants of Rome were now considerably increased, 312,081 free citizens being cessed about this time. For about eighteen years,

years, the Romans were employed in less important wars with the Ligurians, Corsicans, Dalmatians, Spaniards, and Macedonians; all which, being considered only as so many revolts, did not any way endanger the Roman commonwealth.

About the year 604 from the building of Rome, began the third Punic war, when it was determined in the Roman senate, that *Carthage must be destroyed*. The next year, Censorinus and Manlius, then consuls, were sent to Africa with 150 gallies, 80,000 foot, and 4000 horse, which terrifying the Carthaginians, they sent ambassadors to Rome, to offer an unlimited submission. Answer was made, that the senate of Rome granted them their liberty, the enjoyment of their laws, all their territories, and other possessions, provided that, within thirty days, they should send as hostages to Lilybæum 300 young Carthaginians, of the first distinction, and comply with the orders of the consuls.

These severe terms were submitted to, and the hostages were ordered to depart; but the cries, groans, and lamentations of their mothers at their departure, whom they were to see no more, is much easier to be conceived than described.

No sooner had the Carthaginian deputies arrived at the Roman camp, than they were told by Censorinus, that the people of Carthage must immediately deliver up all their arms to him; to which they were forced to consent, and which was no sooner commanded than done.

Cenforinus, having applauded their obedience, told them, that the Roman people were determined totally to demolish Carthage; but that the inhabitants might remove from it, and found another city in their own territories, provided its distance from the sea did not exceed ten miles.

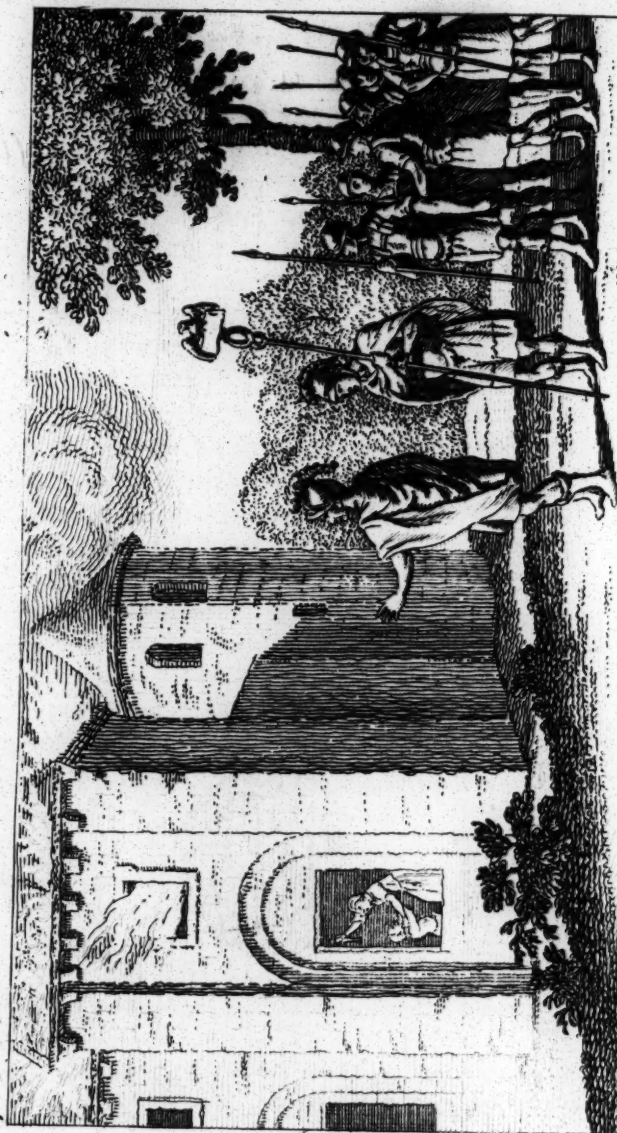
The most tremendous thunder from the skies could not have more affected the Carthaginians, than did this sentence of the consul. They knew neither where they were, what they did or said; but, tearing their clothes, rolled themselves in the dust. After some time, recovering from the first emotions of horror and despair, though destitute of men and arms, they shut their gates, and resolved to make an obstinate resistance.

The Roman consul, thinking he had nothing to fear from them, made no great haste to march against Carthage, whose inhabitants instantly set about making arms with incredible expedition; the temples, palaces, and open squares, were all changed into so many arsenals, where men and women worked day and night; and, because materials were wanting to make ropes, the women cut off their hair, which amply supplied the want of proper materials.

The Romans marched and invested the city, but were repulsed at every assault, and no material advantage was gained by them during the whole campaign. The siege was carried on very slowly, and the besieged recovered their spirits, having made the boldest sallies, burnt their engines, and harassed their foragers.

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The Romans being determined on the destruction of Carthage, and uneasy at the little progress made by their generals, sent Scipio thither in 607. His first business was to revive the discipline among the troops, which had been entirely neglected, and then prepared to carry on the siege with vigour. During the winter quarters, Scipio endeavoured to defeat the enemy's troops without the city, and in one engagement slew 70,000 of them.

Early the next spring, Scipio, having attacked, at one and the same time, the harbour called Cothon, and the citadel, he then marched towards the forum, where was the most shocking spectacle of slaughtered people; some cut to pieces by the murdering weapons, others half-killed by the fall of horses; others torn limb from limb, or half-buried in the earth and trampled on, lay mangled in heaps in the most shocking manner.

The Carthaginians, wearied out with these ill successes, besought the Romans to spare the lives of all those, who should be willing to leave the citadel. This was granted to all, except deserters; and, in consequence thereof, there came out 50,000 men and women, who were sent into the fields under a strong guard.

Asdrubal, with his wife and two children, together with about 900 deserters, fortified themselves in the temple of Esculapius; but Asdrubal being at last conquered by famine, and desirous of saving his own life, came down privately to Scipio, and threw himself at his feet. The Roman general shewed him immediately

diately to the deserters, who, transported with rage and fury at the sight, vented the most horrid imprecations against him, and set fire to the temple.

As the flames were spreading, Asdrubal's wife, dressing herself as splendid as possible, and placing herself and her two children in sight of Scipio, addressed herself to him, in a loud voice, as follows: "I call not down curses upon thy head, O Roman; for you have acted only as the laws of war permit you; but may the gods of Carthage, and thou in concert with them, punish, according to his deserts, the base wretch, who has betrayed his country, his gods, his wife, and his children."

She then thus addressed herself to Asdrubal: "Perfidious wretch! Thou basest of creatures! This fire will soon consume both me and my children: but, as to thee, go and adorn the gay triumph of thy conqueror, and suffer, in the sight of all Rome, the tortures you have so justly merited." No sooner had she spoken these words, but, snatching up her children, she cut their throats, threw them into the flames, then rushed headlong into them herself, and was followed by the deserters, where they all instantly perished.

Thus fell the mighty Carthage 708 years after its building, and about 608 years after the building of Rome. It contained an innumerable multitude of inhabitants, and, being twenty-four miles in compass, continued burning seventeen days together. The conquering Scipio, after seeing this mighty pile in flames, could

could not help weeping over its ruins. He did not enrich himself with the spoils of this ill-fated country, but distributed them among his soldiers. Remember, youthful reader, however prosperous fortune may be at present, however flattering the bloom of life, calamities may overtake you ; and, though you should be happy enough to escape them, do not forget, that old age, which steals imperceptibly on you, will one day lay you, as the power of Rome did Carthage, in the dust.

C H A P. VI.

From the Destruction of Carthage to the Year of Rome 650.

S O O N after the destruction of Carthage, the Romans likewise conquered and demolished Corinth, which was one of the finest and most beautiful cities in all Greece, because they had affronted the Roman ambassadors, sent to dissolve the confederacy, and to leave the cities to the government of their own peculiar laws.

In the mean Time, Viriatus, a shepherd, who made himself captain of a band of robbers, and afterwards became general of a numerous party of men like himself, stirred up so many nations in Spain to rebellion, that the Romans were in danger of being dispossessed of that country, Viriatus having reduced Q. Fabius to such extremity, that he was obliged to accept of equal terms. Cæpio, who was consul the succeeding year, refused to abide by those terms, and thereupon continued the war. This consul having bribed three of the friends of Viriatus, they murdered him in his sleep. This was a matter of no small disgrace to Rome, and particularly to Cæpio. It is amazing, that a people, who had conquered the most powerful nations then in being, should be guilty of such an enormous crime, to get rid of one man. One would almost imagine, that this man had rendered himself as formidable
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to the Romans, as ever was Hannibal, since they took the same road to get rid of both.

In the year of Rome 612, the war was carried on with the greatest vigour in Spain, where the Romans made but a very indifferent figure, being several times repulsed by the Numantines, who at last obliged them to accept of a peace no ways honourable to the Romans.

The war proving every year more unsuccessful, the Romans having sustained great losses, in the year of Rome 616, Mancinus was sent to command in Spain, who was defeated in four engagements. In the last battle, the Numantines seized his camp, after attacking him in a narrow passage, where they fought with the greatest advantage, and made him submit to a most inglorious peace.

The senate was exasperated with Mancinus, and refused to ratify his peace. They stripped him quite naked, and, tying his hands behind him, sent him to the enemy, that they might revenge themselves on him for their breaking the ignominious peace he had concluded. The enemy, however, would not receive him, saying, the blood of one person was not a sufficient expiation for the breach of public faith.

The war with the Numantines continued till the year of Rome 622; and, till that time, the Romans were defeated in almost every battle. The senate, exasperated at their ill success, now resolved to send Scipio, who had destroyed Carthage. He had no sooner taken on him the command, than he began to restore the discipline of the troops, the want of which
had

had been the chief cause of their ill success ; and, in fifteen months after his arrival in Spain, left Numantia in ashes.

If we compare the Numantines with the Romans, we shall find that the former had as much bravery and greatness of soul as the latter, if we may give the name of bravery and greatness to what would, in these times, be considered as savage brutality. The Numantines, oppressed by famine, and despairing of obtaining from Scipio any other terms, than that of surrendering at discretion, they murdered their wives and children, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Romans, and burnt them with their most precious effects : after this, they either killed themselves, or rushed into the midst of the Roman army, where they were all cut to pieces, hardly a man being left to adorn Scipio's triumph. This famous city, with only 4000 men, supported a siege of nine years against 40,000 Romans, whom they beat in several battles. On Scipio's return to Rome, to the surname of Africanus, was now added that of Numantinus.

In proportion as Rome grew great and powerful in her conquests abroad, her citizens grew weak and enervated at home. Those, who had formerly been accustomed to brave the most threatening dangers and the most toilsome labours, were now sinking into effeminacy, ease, and affluence, and the love of arms was succeeded by that of riches and splendor. To this fatal degeneracy was owing the fall of the grandeur, and the destruction of the happiness of Rome :

Rome : their ambition and thirst after honours and dignities ; their avarice, which soon banished plain-dealing, justice, probity, and all the social virtues ; their pride, cruelty, contempt of the gods, and mercenary prostitution of every thing ; their ambition, which taught them the art of dissimulation, and the use of good or bad means to arrive at their several ends ; all these, combined together, hastened their destruction.

These vices, having once taken root, like poisonous weeds, are difficult to be eradicated. The government of Rome, once so famous for justice and lenity, now degenerated into cruelty and oppression. Though the Romans, indeed, after this period, conquered many powerful nations, though learning and the polite arts were continually encreasing, yet every thing was sullied at home by inglorious factions, jealousies and feuds, which were sometimes carried even to the destruction of each other, of which Tiberius Gracchus was the first remarkable instance.

This man, who was of a restless disposition, had been concerned in the dishonourable treaty concluded by Mancinus in Spain ; and, being reflected upon on that account by the senate, he endeavoured to make himself popular by taking the part of the poor peasants, who were dispossessed of their lands by the rich ; whereby the public was defrauded of its revenues, and the poor of their subsistence.

Being elected tribune, he enacted several laws in behalf of the poor, which obliged the patricians

tricians to give up a considerable part of their estates. Disputes running high between Gracchus and the senate, the latter commanded Mutius Scævola, the consul, to defend the commonwealth by force of arms; but he refused. Immediately, Scipio Nasica, then Pontifex Maximus, and Gracchus's kinsman, a person of great merit, and friend of the commonwealth, went to seek Gracchus at the capitol, calling aloud, to all those who had the welfare of their country at heart, to follow him.

At these words the senators, the principal patricians, and the greatest part of the Roman knights, with such of the people, armed with clubs and staves, as had not joined in the insurrection, rushed upon Gracchus, while he was haranguing the populace, and beat out his brains, killing also 300 of his followers at the same time.

This was the first sedition after the expulsion of the kings, which ended in the effusion of blood. After the fall of Gracchus, there was no tribune, who had courage or generosity enough to espouse the part of the oppressed. Avarice and self-interest produced a servile submission to the will of the great, and the regard the Romans once had for their country was now totally forgotten. Pride and luxury succeeded that noble disinterestedness, to which Rome owed its power and grandeur.

In the year of Rome 625, the number of free citizens, who were cessed, amounted to 330,825. In the year 631, notwithstanding the precautions taken to hinder Carthage from ever being rebuilt,

rebuilt, in less than twenty-five years after its destruction, and even in Scipio's life-time, Caius, younger brother of Tiberius Gracchus, in order to make himself popular, undertook to rebuild it, and conducted thither a colony of 6000 citizens for that purpose. The senate did all in their power to interrupt it, as they were informed of several unlucky omens at the time of laying the foundation; but the tribunes, who were not over-scrupulous in religious matters, went on with the building, and finished it in a few days. This was the first colony sent out of Italy.

Caius Gracchus, being appointed one of the triumviri for dividing the lands, gave great offence to the Italians, who thought themselves treated with great severity, and called in Scipio to their protection, who did not act with that vigour the people expected. Not long after, Scipio was one morning found dead in his bed: his wife, Sempronia, and Cornelia, his mother-in-law, who was mother of the Gracchi, being suspected of having poisoned him. He was, at the time of his death, about fifty-seven years of age, and possessed every qualification necessary in the warrior and the senator. He knew how happily to blend repose and action, and how to employ his leisure with great delicacy and taste: he divided his time between the toils of arms, and the peaceful study of the best authors; between the military labours of the camp, and the quiet business of the senate. Herein he set an example to those of the most illustrious birth, as well as to others, either dig-

nified with titles or conquests, how necessary it is, that they should improve their minds, and fortify their souls, by useful study, and the opinions of those great personages who lived before them. Human life is confined to narrow limits, and must therefore know little of itself: how necessary then is it, that we should call in to our assistance such things, which, if we will but take the pains to enquire into, will at once shew us the paths we ought to pursue, to arrive at glory. In reading of history, we are shewn by what means some have sunk into obscurity, and others raised to the highest pitch of grandeur: we are thereby enabled to choose the good, and reject the evil, without buying knowledge at the high price of experience.

Caius Gracchus now carried things with a high hand, and even raised an insurrection, when the consul published a proclamation, offering, to any person, who should bring the head of Caius, the weight of it in gold. Caius, now doubting the stability of the populace who had joined him, after so great a reward offered for his head, flew to a grove consecrated to the furies, on the other side the Tiber, where, believing it not possible for him to escape those who were in search of him, he prevailed with Philocrates, his faithful slave, to kill him, after which Philocrates murdered himself on the body of his master. This happened about the year of Rome 631.

Much about this time, or soon after, Fabius Maximus overthrew Bituitus, king of the Arverni, or people of Auvergne in France, and
took

took him and his son prisoner, after killing 120,000 of his men. This bloody battle was fought near the banks of the Rhone; and Fabius Maximus, at his return to Rome, was honoured with a triumph.

A king of Numidia, named Masinissa, having three legitimate sons, had ordered by his last will, that his dominions should be divided among them by Scipio, which he afterwards did with the most impartial justice. The youngest of these sons left also a son, called Jugurtha, whom a concubine had brought him. The virtues of this young prince had rendered him the darling of the Numidians: he was a master of the most delicate wit, and solid judgment, and did not devote himself, as young men commonly do, to a life of luxury and pleasure: he used to exercise himself in all manly sports with the young nobility; and, though he exceeded them all in judgment and activity, he never appeared to pride himself on that consideration.

So conspicuous an assemblage of fine talents and perfections, began to excite the jealousy of Micipsa, his father's eldest brother, who was then king of Numidia, and he therefore resolved to ruin him. For this purpose, he gave Jugurtha the command of the forces, which he sent to the Romans, who, at that time, were besieging Numantia, under the conduct of Scipio, flattering himself, that his natural impetuosity would hurry him into danger, and cause him to lose his life.

Micipsa was herein mistaken ; for this young prince joined to an undaunted courage the utmost calmness of mind, and preserved so nice a conduct during the campaign, that he won the good-will of the whole army, insomuch that Scipio, after the destruction of Numantia, sent him back to his uncle with letters filled with the highest compliments.

Micipsa now changed his opinion of his nephew, and determined, if possible, to win his affections by kindness. He accordingly adopted him, and, by his last will, made him joint heir with his two sons. Happy would it have been for Jugurtha, had he, after the death of Micipsa, shewn the same love for virtue he had during his life-time ; but he was one of those examples which shew, that politicians do not rank gratitude in the number of their virtues.

At last, interest and ambition, those powerful motives to every evil action, prompted him to turn his thoughts on divesting the family of Micipsa of that right he was bound by the laws of gratitude to protect. Aspiring therefore to be sole monarch of Numidia, he resolved to destroy Hiempsal and Adherbal, the two young princes. Hiempsal he found means to get murdered, and this was the first victim he sacrificed to his ambition.

Adherbal, terrified at this wicked deed, fled with the utmost precipitation into his own province ; and, though not of a warlike disposition, he found himself obliged to take up arms, as well for his own security, as to revenge his brother's death. Jugurtha gave him battle,
conquered

conquered him, and obliged him to fly. Adherbal, to save his life, was obliged to disguise himself, under the favour of which he hastened to the Roman senate, to implore their assistance.

Jugurtha was uneasy at Adherbal's escape, and the more so, as he had heard he was gone to Rome to claim their protection. He immediately sent ambassadors thither, with orders to bribe the principal senators, by which means they were soon brought off from Adherbal. Jugurtha therefore obtained every thing he wanted at present, and Lower Numidia only was allowed to Adherbal. When every thing seemed to be amicably settled, Jugurtha, without paying the least regard to the late regulation made by the Romans, commenced hostilities against Adherbal, and, having reduced him to the utmost extremity, made him large promises on his surrender; but he no sooner saw himself master of the city, than he cut the Numidian garrison to pieces, and put Adherbal to death in the most cruel manner.

Various were the opinions of the Romans on this treacherous behaviour of Jugurtha. The most equitable senators thought the tyrant ought to be instantly destroyed; but those, who had received his bribes, were of a different way of thinking. C. Memmius, who had been newly elected tribune of the people, and whose greatest care was to curb the authority of the great, made an elegant speech in the senate on this occasion, in which were the following very remarkable words: " Integrity is quite banished from the senate, and justice is fled

from it: money is the tyrant of Rome, and the people have fatally experienced, that gold is the only deity of the nobles; these make a public traffic of their faith and their honour. The glory and interest of the state are now sunk into venality, the majesty of the empire has been betrayed, and the republic has been sold, both in the army, and in Rome itself."

This speech had its proper effect, and the senators immediately ordered one of the consuls to cross into Africa, at the head of a powerful army. Long was this war, and various its successes; Jugurtha being esteemed a second Hannibal: at last, he, who had been so long accustomed to treachery and deceit, was himself delivered up to the Romans by Bocchus, his father-in-law.

It is reported, that Jugurtha ran distracted as he was walking in chains to adorn the triumph of Marius. After the ceremony was ended, he was cast into prison, when the lictors were so eager to seize his robe, that they rent it in several pieces, and tore away the tips of his ears, to get the rich jewels, with which they were adorned. In this condition, he was thrown, stark naked, and in the utmost terror, into a deep dungeon doomed to be his grave, where he lived six days struggling with hunger. The fruitless desire of prolonging life served as a punishment to a king, who had made no scruple to murder his relations and principal courtiers, whenever it tended to gratify his ambition,

C H A P. VII.

From the Year of Rome 650, to the perpetual Dictatorship of Sylla.

ABOUT the year of Rome 650, and but a short time after the defeat of Jugurtha, the consuls Mallius or Manlius, and Cæpio, who had been continued as proconsul, received a most severe shock on the banks of the Rhone, losing upwards of 80,000 men. Manlius fell in the battle; but Cæpio, unadvisedly returning to Rome, was murdered, and his body thrown into the fields.

Two years afterwards, Marius, who was now a fourth time elected consul, marched towards the Teutones, defeated them, and took Teutobobus, their king, prisoner, after a slaughter of 140,000 men. On this account Marius was a fifth time created consul.

In the mean time, the Cimbri and Teutones, whose numbers were still immense, passed over into Italy. They were engaged by Caius Marius and Quintus Catulus, in which battle, Catulus gained the greatest advantage, and, besides 60,000 taken prisoners, above double that number were slain, whereby almost the whole nation was extirpated. Of the Roman soldiers, in both armies, 300 only were slain. Of the thirty-three standards taken from the Cimbri, Marius's party took only two, but Catulus thirty-one. This put an end to the war, and a triumph was decreed both the consuls. In this

this battle, the wives of the Cimbri made an unparalleled resistance from their chariots ; but, finding the battle desperate, they murdered all their children, and afterwards themselves, that they might not survive their loss.

Marius, after this, got himself elected consul a sixth time, and procured L. Valerius Flaccus to be chosen his colleague, in prejudice of Metellus, which he accomplished by the most shameful artifices. At this time, there was not the least freedom in elections, every thing being decided by corruption and venality, and, where that failed, violence was made use of. Rome, now entirely unlike what she formerly was, seems at this time to have been the seat of tyranny and oppression.

Caius Marius, now the sixth time consul, as just mentioned, kindled the first civil war in Rome. Sylla, the consul, being sent to take upon him the management of the war against Mithridates, who had possessed himself of Asia and Achaia, and detaining his army a little in Campania, in order to extinguish the remains of a dangerous war, which had broke out in Italy, Marius attempted to get the command of the war against Mithridates. Sylla, being incensed at these proceedings, marched to Rome with his army, and there fought Marius and Sulpicius. In this battle, he slew Sulpicius, and put Marius to flight : then, having settled Caneus Octavius and Lucius Cornelius Cinna in the consularship for the succeeding year, he departed into Asia.

Mithri-

Mithridates, who was king of Pontus, and possessed Armenia the Lesser, and the whole circumference of the Pontic sea, with the Bosphorus, first attempted to expel Nicomedes, an ally of the Roman people, out of Bithynia, sending word to the senate, that he was preparing to make war upon him, on account of the injuries he had received at his hands.

The senate sent answer back to Mithridates, that, if he did, he himself should feel the weight of the Roman arms. Enraged at this reply, he immediately seized on Capadocia, expelling the king and ally of the Roman people thence. He then marched to Ephesus, and dispatched circular letters into all parts of Asia, ordering, that wherever any Roman citizen should be found, they should be all put to death in one day.

In the mean time, Athens also, a city of Achaia, was delivered into the hands of Mithridates, by Ariston the Athenian; for Mithridates had dispatched his general into Achaia, with 120,000 horse and foot, by whom the rest of Greece was likewise seized. A battle being afterwards fought by the Romans and the army of Mithridates, the latter was so entirely defeated, that, out of 120,000, scarce 10,000 remained, whereas the Romans lost only 14,000: a loss, which, in those days of blood and slaughter, was deemed as nothing.

Mithridates, on receiving the news of this defeat, dispatched 70,000 select troops to his general, 20,000 of which were slain in the first battle, and in the second they were all cut off,

The

The general was obliged to hide himself, for three days, naked in the fens; upon which Mithridates began to think of treating about peace with Sylla.

While Rome was all in confusion, being exasperated with the arbitrary conduct of Sylla, who was then employed in the wars in Asia, Marius lived in a kind of exile, in an island on the coast of Africa, whither he had fled with his son and some Roman senators, who followed his fortune. This unhappy Marius, being then seventy years of age, who had so long enjoyed the highest glory in Rome, had been forced to fly from that city on foot, unattended even by a single servant. After wandering some time in this deplorable condition, he was obliged, in order to secure himself from his pursuers, to retire into a fen, where he passed the whole night, standing up to his neck in mud.

At day-break, he quitted his uncomfortable place of concealment, in order to reach the sea-shore, hoping to meet with some vessel to carry him out of Italy. However, he was soon known by the inhabitants of the neighbouring town, who seized him, and, putting a rope about his neck, naked and covered with dirt as he was, dragged him to prison; when the magistrates, in obedience to the order of the senate, immediately sent a public slave to kill him.

Marius, as soon as he saw the slave enter, guessed on what errand he came, by the naked sword he held in his hand. Marius then cried out, with a voice of authority, "Barbarous wretch, darest thou to assassinate Caius Marius?"

Marius?" The slave, terrified at the bare name of a man, so formidable to his nation, threw down his sword, and ran out of prison in the utmost terror and confusion, crying, "It will be impossible for me to kill Marius!" The magistrates looked upon the timidity of this slave, as a testimony of the care of the gods to preserve the life of that great man: "Let him go (said they) wherever the fates may conduct him, and let the decree of the senate take place against him in any other spot than this. We only beseech the gods to forgive us, if a superior authority forces us to drive from our city, the man, who formerly secured all Italy from the incursions of the Barbarians." They afterwards provided him with a ship, which carried him to the island of Ænaria. This is one of the many instances that may be produced, that nothing so much procures us assistance under our misfortunes, as bearing up against them with boldness and intrepidity. Had Marius acted the weak or effeminate part at this time, he must have fallen a sacrifice to the unnatural war then carrying on in his country.

Marius being informed that his son was fled to the court of the king of Numidia, he sailed for Africa; but a storm arising, he was obliged to put into Sicily, where new dangers awaited him. Scarce had he got on shore, when a Roman quæstor, who commanded in that country, attempted to seize him; but Marius escaped to his ship, after losing sixteen of his attendants, who sacrificed themselves to save him.

After

After some days sail he arrived in Africa, and landed near Carthage. Sextilius was then prætor of that province; and, as he had never given him any umbrage, he had no reason to expect an enemy in him; but he had not been there many days, when a lictor came, and ordered him, in the prætor's name, to leave the country, otherwise he must expect to be treated as an enemy to the Romans.

Marius, enraged to find that a resting-place was no where allowed him, and that not even a corner was left him to hide his head in, gazed upon the lictor in deep silence. At last, an answer being demanded, "Tell thy master, (said he) that thou hast seen Marius banished from his native country, and sitting on the ruins of Carthage." It should seem as though, by comparing his misfortunes with those of the mighty empire of the Carthaginians, he thereby would remind the prætor of the instability of all human things.

Notwithstanding the severity of the season, he submitted himself again to the ocean, and spent part of the winter in roving up and down those seas. However, a short time after, we see Marius, Cinna, Carbo, and Sertorius, marching at the head of an army to block up Rome. Sylla, being at too great a distance to be recalled, the senate sent for Cecilius Metellus, a very brave and experienced general.

Rome was now in the utmost confusion, and the senate, to put an end to these distractions, sent a deputation to Cinna, by which they recognized him as consul; upon which Metellus,
finding

finding affairs grew desperate, he withdrew to Liguria. Cinna then entered the city first, attended by his guards, after having made a solemn promise, not to put any person to death in an illegal manner. Marius, after having halted at the gates some time, and there pretended a reverence to the laws, at last threw off the veil, which concealed his blood-thirsty soul, and, rushing into the city with a party of soldiers, immediately butchered those he had marked out for destruction. Several illustrious senators were murdered in the streets, and made the first victims to the inglorious revenge of Marius. He ordered their heads to be set upon the Rostra, and, as though he wished to extend his vengeance even beyond the grave, he ordered the mangled bodies to be left in the streets, that they might be devoured by the dogs: so soon had he forgot how much he himself so lately stood in need of pity!

Among the multitude, who fell in this bloody massacre, was Octavius, the consul, who was killed in his tribunal; and Merula, the priest of Jupiter, hearing that he was proscribed, ordered his veins to be cut open, that his enemies might not have the cruel satisfaction of prescribing the mode of his execution. Afterwards fell Mark Antony, a senator of consular dignity, who, by the charms of his eloquence, defended himself a considerable time against the fury of the soldiers; and Catulus suffocated himself by the smoke of coals. The furious multitude of slaves, whom Marius had appointed the bloody instruments of his inhu-

man revenge, murdered the fathers of families, plundered houses, ravished women, and forced away children : at the least signal given by their inglorious leader, they butchered any person, and he even commanded them to kill all those, whose salute he did not return.

Marius, having now glutted himself with the blood of his fellow citizens, and a kind of calm succeeding this horrible storm, he began to revolve in his mind his former misfortunes, and the dangers he had experienced both by sea and land. These reflections were aggravated by the apprehension of Sylla's return, when, in all human probability, he should be again reduced to the like calamities. To drive these horrible images from his mind, he took to drinking, but the excess he gave into, brought on him a pleurisy, of which he died in his seventh consulate, no man having enjoyed that office so many times, and in the seventieth year of his age.

Young Marius, inheriting both the power and cruelty of his father, immediately put to death several senators, who had escaped the first fury of the proscription. While matters were in this disorder and confusion at Rome, where they were taking all possible steps to destroy Sylla, that general was conquering Mithridates, with whom he concluded a peace on such terms as Sylla prescribed him, and then marched for Rome.

In the year of Rome 667, on the report of Sylla being on his march to the city, Cinna and Carbo, who were then consuls, raised a powerful

powerful army to oppose him; but a mutiny happening in that division of the army commanded by Cinna, that general was run thro' the body. After his death, Carbo enjoyed the consulate alone the remaining part of the year.

Sylla being come to the sea-shore of Asia, his whole army bound themselves to him by a fresh oath. He then embarked, and landed safe at Brundisium, without meeting with the least opposition. While his troops were refreshing themselves there, he was joined by Metellus, at the head of a great body of new levied forces, and also by Marcus Crassus, who shared with Sylla in all the glory and danger of this war; but, of all the succours Sylla was favoured with on this occasion, none gave him so much satisfaction, as that brought him by Pompey, called afterwards Pompey the Great, and at that time scarce twenty-three years of age. His army consisted of three legions, and he had been forced to fight his way to Sylla, after having given Brutus, a leader in the other party, a signal overthrow. Sylla received Pompey with the highest marks of distinction, and gave him the title of *Imperator*; notwithstanding he had not yet sat in the senate.

In the year of Rome 671, Carbo, being elected consul a third time, with young Marius, in the spring, both armies took the field. Being come in sight of each other, Marius offered battle to Sylla, who accepted the challenge. Both parties fought with incredible bravery, and victory was long in doubt, till Sylla found means to corrupt five cohorts,

which turned out to the disadvantage of Marius, who displayed in the battle all the capacity of a veteran general, and the intrepid valour of a young officer: he often rallied his troops, returned to the charge, and was one of the last who retired. Sylla, having now blocked up Marius in Præneste, set out for Rome at the head of a detachment; and, on his arrival there, the gates were opened to him.

After having settled matters in Rome to his own mind, he returned to the siege of Præneste. Marius, finding it impossible for him to escape, slew himself, after which Sylla put all the inhabitants of Præneste to the sword, the women and children excepted. Sylla then entered Rome at the head of his triumphant army, and his lieutenants possessed themselves of all the cities in Italy. Such was the conclusion of these lamentable civil wars, which lasted ten years, and occasioned the destruction of more than 150,000 men, twenty-four of consular dignity, seven of prætorian, sixty of ædilitian, and near three hundred senators.

Sylla no sooner found himself in the absolute possession of Rome, than he commenced the tyrant, and perpetrated the most shocking cruelties. He caused an inhuman massacre to be made of 6000 men, who had fled to that city, to avoid the death with which they were threatened. Not long after, he caused to be posted up in the Forum, the names of forty senators, and 1600 knights, all of whom he proscribed. Two days after, he proscribed the like number of senators, and a multitude
of

of the wealthiest citizens of Rome, merely for the sake of their effects.

Such slaves, as had assassinated their masters, were largely recompenced for their treachery ; and, to the immortal scandal of Sylla, children were seen, their hands reeking with the blood of their fathers, coming to ask a horrid reward for having murdered them. Quintus Aurelius, a peaceable citizen, who had always lived in a happy obscurity, without being known to either Marius or Sylla, was proscribed and murdered, for the sake of a fine house he had built in Alba. Nothing was now heard of every day but new proscriptions, and no man was sure one hour, that he should not be massacred the next.

Sylla then seized on all the possessions, houses, and territories of such cities of Italy as had, in the course of the civil war, sided with Marius, and gave them to his soldiers, thereby binding them the stronger to his fortune and interests. After this, he caused himself to be created perpetual dictator, and, in this manner, the unhappy Romans fell again under the tyranny of one man.

C H A P. VIII.

From the perpetual Dictatorship of Sylla, to the Birth of Augustus Cæsar.

SYLLA, being now appointed perpetual dictator, changed the form of government to his own liking; he abolished the old laws, enacted new ones, seized upon the public treasury, and disposed of every thing just as he pleased. He was as liberal to his friends, as he was implacable and cruel to his enemies, enriching the former with the plunder of the state, and inhumanly butchering the latter.

There is something very amazing in the character of Sylla, who, after having three years reigned with a kind of absolute dominion in Rome, and when there was no power to oppose his will, in the year of Rome 675, resigned the honour of dictator, and, to the surprise of all the world, reduced himself to the condition of a private citizen, without fearing the just resentment of those illustrious families, whose chiefs he had butchered in the most cruel manner. It was not long before, that he appointed twenty-four lictors, with their fasces and axes, and a strong body-guard, to attend him constantly; but we now see him walking unguarded in the Forum with some of his friends, in the presence of thousands of the people, who, struck with astonishment, considered this unexpected change as a prodigy.

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He returned home in the evening, unattended, and as a private man; and, though his conduct must have raised him a multiplicity of enemies, not one person dared to insult him, except a young man, who imprudently made use of some scurrilous language. Sylla, however, took no further notice of it, than saying, in a kind of prophetic strain, that behaviour like his, would deter any man, who should arrive at a high pitch of power, from resigning it.

The Romans in general considered this resignation as the highest mark of magnanimity: they endeavoured to forget the remembrance of his horrid proscriptions, and in some degree pardoned the many murders he had been the cause of, since he had at last restored liberty to his oppressed country. There were those, however, who, with some reason, ascribed his resignation to the perpetual alarms he was in, lest there should be one Roman, who had still virtue enough left, to hazard his own life in destroying a monster, who had been the death of so many illustrious citizens.

Sylla, however, after shedding so much human blood, died peaceably in his bed; but his body was putrefied, and turned into lice. Historians do not agree concerning the disorder of which he died, and which only could account for this extraordinary incident. He wrote his own epitaph a few days before he expired, which shews, that he had sense enough, in spite of his insatiable thirst for riches and power, which drew a veil over the finest understandings,

ings, to be sensible of the character he deserved, and in which every succeeding age have agreed. The purport of his epitaph was, "No man ever did more good offices to his friends: no man ever was more cruel to his enemies." His body was carried in great pomp through Rome, and was the first which was burnt in that city, in order to prevent its being treated like that of Marius, whose bones, by Sylla's orders, were dug up, and scattered about. Upon the whole, inglorious revenge seems to have been the darling passion of Sylla.

After the death of Sylla, Rome was again disturbed by civil contentions, which no one had dared to attempt while Sylla was living. Ambition, and the thirst after honours and power, are not always centered in the man who has abilities to support them; the weak and the giddy think they can do as much as the knowing and experienced, till they find their mistake in their ruin. I shall, however, pass over these matters, and hasten to a circumstance, which seems to have given the Romans no small trouble, and which may serve to convince us, how perilous it is to treat the mere appearance of danger with indifference.

About the year of Rome 680, a gladiator of great bravery, whose name was Spartacus, having escaped from Capua, with seventy of his companions, exhorted them to sacrifice their lives for the defence of their liberties, rather than serve as spectacles to the inhumanity of their patrons. Then wandering thro' the neighbouring countries, and encreasing
their

their number, they commenced a dangerous war in Italy.

The senate despising Spartacus, sent at first but a few troops, headed by two prætors, to subdue him, thinking it beneath the dignity of the commonwealth, to oppose the legions to a herd of slaves and vagabonds. Spartacus, however, cut them all to pieces, which surprised and exasperated the senate.

The affair became now a very serious matter, and the consuls, each at the head of a very considerable army, were ordered to march against them. These magistrates, inconsiderately persuading themselves, that a body of slaves and vagabonds would not dare to look the legions in the face, marched very carelessly to meet the enemy, who, taking a proper advantage of their negligence, made so skilful a choice of the field of battle, that the Romans were put to flight. The consuls rallied them some time after, and came to a second engagement; but, to their disappointment and disgrace, were again repulsed.

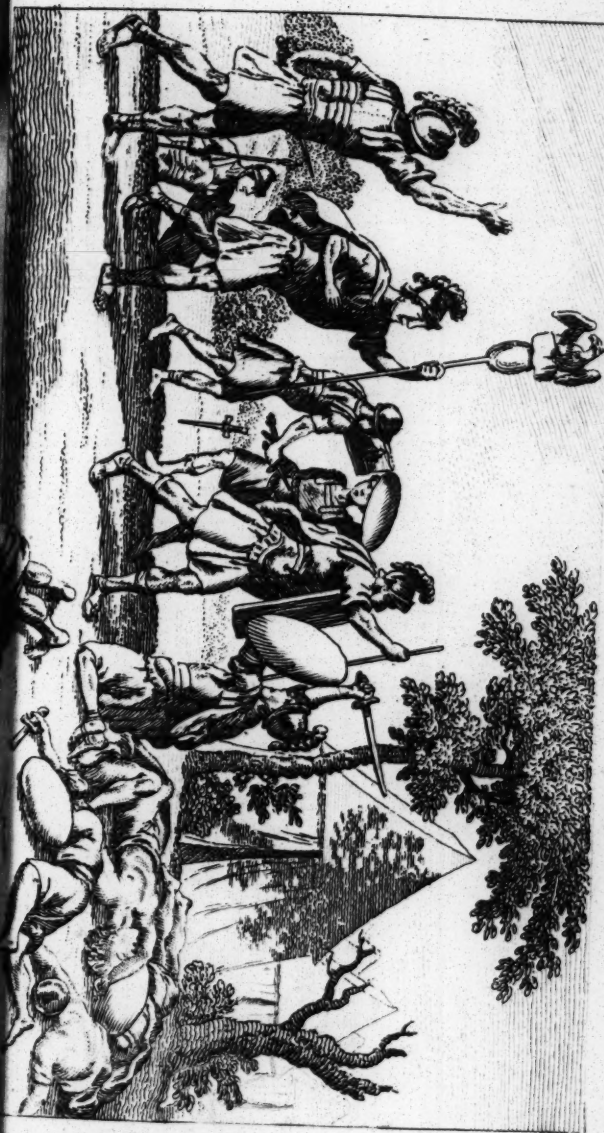
Spartacus, having gained this victory over the legions, soon found himself at the head of 120,000 peasants, slaves and deserters, who, having no ideas of honour or humanity, spread horror and desolation wherever they went. This domestic war having raged three years in Italy, the senate gave the command of the Roman army to Cinnius Crassus, who soon gave a new face to the appearance of the war.

Crassus soon restored good discipline among the troops, and convinced the Romans, that,
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under his command, they must either conquer or die. The rebels were first surprized, and 10,000 of them cut to pieces, as they were out on a party of foraging; after which, their army, commanded by Spartacus himself, was defeated in a pitched battle. However, he determined, once more, to try the fate of arms, and accordingly very skilfully drew up his forces in order of battle. A horse being brought him just before the battle, he drew his sword, killed it, and then, turning about to his soldiers, said, "If I am victorious I shall not want a horse; and, if we are defeated, I will not make use of one."

This reply so animated his soldiers, that they fought with the utmost fury, and victory remained doubtful for a long time; but, at last, the valour of the legions, carried every thing before it. A terrible slaughter was made of these vagabonds: Spartacus himself, being wounded in the thigh by a javelin, defended himself obstinately on his knees, holding his shield in one hand, and his sword with the other; but, being at last covered with wounds, he fell on a heap, either of Romans, whom he had sacrificed to his fury, or of his own soldiers, who had lost their lives in defending him. Such of them as escaped were afterwards all cut to pieces by Pompey, who met them in his return from Spain.

About this time, anno 682, Rome was found to contain 450,000 free citizens, notwithstanding the long and bloody wars they had been engaged in. Learning and the polite
arts





arts gained ground considerably, and with them corruption, faction, pride and effeminacy.

In the mean time the war was going on against Mithridates, who had fled to Tigranes, king of Armenia. It may not be amiss here to mention one instance of the vanity and ostentation of this Armenian king: having obtained some conquests, he was grown so insupportably proud, that he obliged four kings, whom he had taken prisoners, to run by his side like so many footmen; and, when he was seated on his throne, made them stand before him in a dejected posture, with folded arms.—Deluded Tigranes, blinded with vanity and presumption, you could not reflect on the short duration of human life, and that even that life, short as it is, is every moment producing unexpected vicissitudes! You could not foresee, that you, who then thought yourself a god, would, in a short time, be conquered by the Roman Lucullus; that your own capital would be taken by that general, and yourself driven to distress! Happy those, whom misfortunes teach wisdom; but happier those, whose wisdom prevents them!

About the year of Rome 684, Crassus and Pompey being elected consuls, each endeavoured to excel the other in the affections of the people, not on laudable, but on ambitious motives. Crassus, in order to gain them to his interest, ordered a thousand tables to be spread, and gave an entertainment to the whole city. At the same time, he distributed among the lower sort of people, corn sufficient to sub-

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sist them three months. Crassus was immensely rich; and, by such public and liberal artifices, the great men in Rome purchased the votes of the people.

Pompey, on his side, in order to ingratiate himself with the tribunes of the people, restored to those magistrates all the authority, of which Sylla had deprived them. Thus these ambitious men in turn sported with the laws; increased the power of the senate one moment, and, in the next, that of the people, just as it suited their different interests. Pompey, however, carried his point; for the tribunes, soon after, gave him the command against some pirates, who infested the coast of Cilicia, and invested him with absolute authority. He was allowed 500 ships, 120,000 foot, 5000 horse, 6000 Attic talents, and the power of choosing fifteen lieutenants out of the senate.

With these forces, Pompey took near 400 ships, and 120 forts, killing 10,000 men. Thus, in one campaign, he put an end to the war, behaving with great clemency towards the vanquished, and was honoured with a triumph. Pompey was now so high in the esteem of the people, that they took from Lucullus the command of the army in Asia, then employed against Mithridates, and gave it to him. Indeed, Pompey was now raised by the people to as high a pitch of power, as ever Sylla had acquired by his sword.

Notwithstanding all the cabals, which were raised at Rome against Lucullus, in favour of Pompey, the former on his return was honoured

noured with a triumph; for he brought with him, among other spoils, a great number of valuable books, of which he composed a library. At his triumph were exhibited things of immense value, and in particular a statue of Mithridates of solid gold, six feet high, and his shield, enriched with a great number of precious stones. After his triumph, he ingloriously sunk into luxury and effeminacy.

Pompey, in the mean time, pushed Mithridates closely; and, having defeated him in several battles, obliged him to fly from place to place for shelter. The time too was now come, when Tigranes, that proud and haughty king of Armenia, was to be convinced, that the tide of human affairs does not always carry us thro' the flowery meadows of prosperity. Tigranes, being reduced to the utmost extremities, went and threw himself at the Roman general's feet, gave him his diadem, and sued for peace. Pompey returned the monarch his crown, and granted him peace upon certain conditions, which were gladly complied with. Pompey seems to have differed very much from many of the Roman generals, as he does not appear to have added cruelty to ambition.

In the year of Rome 689, Pompey crossed mount Taurus, and directed his march against Darius, the Mede, and Antiochus, king of Syria, for molesting the Roman allies, or succouring their enemies. Much about this time, Mithridates sent to Pompey, to sue for peace. Pompey sent back for answer, that, if he intended to make peace with him, he must come himself in person. Mithridates could not per-

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suade himself to this, and therefore renewed his warlike preparations. After this several of his garrisons revolted; and many of his friends, with one of his sons, suffered death on the occasion.

Mithridates determined to cross into Europe, to advance into Italy, and there make the same havock as Hannibal had done before him; but his soldiers, terrified at the dangers it threatened, refused to follow him: they looked upon him as a desperate prince, who, rather than live in obscurity, was determined to die with glory. These mighty projects he had thus formed hastened his ruin; for his son, Pharnaces, taking the advantage of this temper of the troops, stirred them up to rebellion, and got himself proclaimed king.

Mithridates perceiving this from an upper room, sent a messenger, desiring he might have leave to depart; but his son sent back this base and unnatural answer, that he must die. Mithridates, justly exasperated with this answer, uttered many terrible imprecations, and wished, that his son might one day receive the same message from his own offspring. How terrible must be the reflection, that this son, whom he had tenderly loved, and intended for his successor, was the very person who pronounced his destruction. And now, rather than fall into the hands of the Romans, life being become insupportable, he determined to dispatch himself.

He first gave poison to his wives, his daughters, and his concubines, who all swallowed the

the fatal draught without the least murmuring, and then swallowed a dose himself; but, as he had been accustomed to take antidotes, this had no effect on him. He then begged an officer, his attendant, to kill him, who run him through the body. Thus ended the Mithridatic war, having continued twenty-five years; after which all his dominions were added to the Roman empire.

Pompey was at this time marching towards Jerusalem, and Gabinius, Pompey's lieutenant, having already taken the city, there remained only the citadel to attack, which was vigorously defended by a party that had retired thither. Pompey invested it the day after his arrival; and, having lain before it three months, carried it on a sabbath-day, and that with the greatest ease; for the Jews would not take up arms, even in their own defence, on that day.

Pompey went into the temple at the time the sacrifices were performing, and cut to pieces 12,000 Jews. He and many of his followers entered the Holy of Holies, where he viewed those things, which none but the priests were allowed to behold. However, he shewed so much veneration for the place, that he forbore touching any thing. Judea was reduced under the consulship of Cicero, the same year that Augustus Cæsar was born.

CHAP. IX.

From the Birth of Augustus Cæsar to the Beginning of the first Triumvirate.

SOON after the birth of Augustus Cæsar, one of the most dangerous conspiracies broke out that had ever threatened Rome. At the head of this conspiracy was Lucius Sergius Catiline, who was descended from a very illustrious patrician family of great antiquity. He had been brought up amidst the tumults and disorders of a civil war, and had been the instrument of the cruelties of Sylla, to whom he was devoted. Catiline had been accused of debauching a vestal virgin, and was even suspected of murdering his son for the love of another woman. Destitute of either morals or probity, he discovered not the least veneration for the gods; and, being ever disgusted with the present, was always unhappy with respect to the future.

Though master of few abilities, he was bold, rash, and intrepid, and had not even prudence enough properly to conceal his own infernal designs, where it was necessary he should to prevent their miscarriage. As extravagance is the first cause of the violation of all laws, so Catiline, having contracted vast debts, and being unable to pay them, grew desperate, and aimed at nothing less than the highest and most lucrative employments. For this purpose, he associated himself with those young Romans,
whose

whose excesses in the freedom of wine, women and gaming, had ruined their fortunes, and rendered them the contempt of every discerning person in the city.

These abandoned wretches formed a horrid conspiracy to murder the consuls, and put to death the greatest part of the senators. Even the day was fixed, which was to have given birth to the most infamous attempt, that ever happened in the commonwealth since the foundation of Rome. At the signal given by Catiline, they were to rush upon the consuls and murder them; but, being too hasty in his signal, it was not obeyed; and thus the massacre was put off till another time.

Several women, of the greatest families in Rome, who were no less remarkable for their libertinism than their beauty, engaged in this plot out of complaisance to their lovers. Among these was the famous Sempronia, who was as bold as she was beautiful; she was a perfect mistress of both the Greek and Latin tongues, and could sing and dance to more advantage than became a virtuous woman; nor was she wanting in any of those charms, which are capable of lighting up a passion. The only use she made of them, was to pass away her days in riot and excess; and she had been accused of being accessory to more than one murder.

This conspiracy was daily strengthened by all the young people in Rome, who, having been rocked in the cradle of luxury, and enervated by a continual succession of pleasures; such as had ruined themselves by excesses, and

were no longer able to support their extravagancies; the ambitious, who aspired to the highest posts of the state; and others, who had revenge, which they wanted to gratify on some superior; all these, actuated by different passions, embarked in the cause of Catiline, who made them the largest promises, and, at the same time, exhorted them to employ their interest to procure his being elected consul. No time could better suit the conspirators, as Pompey was then engaged in a war in the East, and Italy had no army to protect it.

Cicero, however, who was then consul, found means to bribe Fulvia, a lady of an illustrious family, which she dishonoured by her criminal amours with one of the chief of the conspirators. From this woman, Cicero got such information, as enabled him to counteract all Catiline's projects. Soon after, Cicero accused Catiline, while he was present in the senate, of his impious design; but he endeavoured to quit himself of the charge. Finding he could not bring the senators to his way of thinking, and being called by them an enemy and a parricide, he cried, in a furious tone of voice, "Since snares are every where laid for me, and those, to whom I am odious, exasperate me beyond measure, I will not perish singly, but involve my enemies in my ruin."

Catiline, having spoken these words, flew out of the senate house, and, sending for the chief conspirators, he told them what had passed. Then, exhorting them to murder the consul, he left Rome the next night, accompanied

nied by three hundred of his companions, and went and joined Manlius. He caused lictors, with fasces and axes, to walk before him, as though he had really been a magistrate. Upon the news of this insurrection, the senate ordered Antonius, the consul, to march the legions against the rebels, and Cicero to look after the care and peace of the city.

Soon afterwards, Lentulus, Cethegus, Gabinius, and two more, who were principals in the conspiracy, were arrested, convicted, and conveyed to different prisons. The contest in the senate was long and warm, what kind of punishment should be inflicted on them. It was, however, at last resolved, that they should be put to death; and Cicero, upon the bare sentence of the senate, and without submitting the matter to the people, as was usual, ordered them to be executed in the different prisons, in which they were confined. These executions at once crushed the plot, and overturned all the designs of the conspirators, who had that night resolved to rescue them from their confinement, that they might immediately join Catiline.

News being brought to Catiline's camp of the late execution, great numbers of his soldiers abandoned him in the night; but Catiline was no ways disconcerted or disheartened at this; for he was determined either to ruin the commonwealth, or perish in the attempt. He thereupon raised new forces, filled the cohorts with them, and soon compleated the legions, which were all enflamed with the same passion
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for blood and slaughter, and the destruction of their native country. By the good management of the consul, Catiline at last found himself surrounded by the enemy, and that his retreat was cut off; he therefore resolved to hazard a battle, though he was considerably inferior in number.

Petreius, who had served thirty years in the field, and from a private soldier had been made a general, commanded for the republic, in the room of the consul, who was suddenly taken ill. He engaged Catiline with the greatest bravery, and the battle was sustained on both sides with the utmost intrepidity. Petreius was at last victorious, and the rebels were all put to the sword; but Catiline, who could not bear the thoughts of surviving the ruin of his party, rushed into that part of the battle, where death was making the greatest havock, and there fell a victim to his own folly and iniquity. He was afterwards found among the dead and mangled bodies of the rebels, which lay in heaps. On his pale and lifeless face was still pictured the haughty ferocity of his soul, which even death could not extinguish.

In the year 692, Pompey returned to Rome, having spent five years in his expedition, and acquired the greatest glory by military exploits. As soon as he reached the borders of Italy, he sent back his army, that he might not give either the senate or the people room to suspect him of any ambitious views on the commonwealth; by which means he obtained the honours of a triumph with universal approbation.

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This triumph lasted two days, and therein were exhibited the names of fifteen conquered kingdoms, eight hundred cities, &c. Among the captives were the king of Judea, and the wives and children of several other kings. Innumerable trophies were likewise exposed, and among them a statue of Pharnaces, of solid silver; also chariots of the same metal, tables of gold, and thirty-three pearl crowns of inestimable value. To complete the grandeur of the shew, Pompey's car was drawn by elephants. It appeared from Pompey's accounts, that he had improved the revenue of the republic to the value of 120,000 talents, besides the very large sums he had distributed among the meanest of his troops.

After this, Pompey was seldom seen in public; and, whenever he came out of his house, he was attended with such a number of his dependants, that one would have taken him rather for an Eastern emperor, than a Roman citizen; but, as Rome was a free city, every thing disgusted them which had the appearance of royalty, and this disgust was hinted to Pompey, who, having so many years been accustomed to command armies, could not persuade himself to appear as a common citizen. His manners and conduct, in almost every other respect, were pure and unsullied, and he was talked of as remarkable for his temperance. No one accused him of avarice, and, in the dignities he aspired to, power was not so much his pursuit, as the splendor with which they were surrounded. Vanity was his predominant passion,

passion, and this led him to seek those honours, which might distinguish him above all the commanders of those times. Moderate in every thing else, any competition with him in glory was insupportable.

No wonder that a foible of this nature made him a number of enemies amidst such a warlike people; but, of that number, Cæsar was afterwards the most dangerous and implacable. The one could not bear the thoughts of an equal, nor the other a superior, and this unhappy disposition in these two great men, was the source of new troubles.

Julius Cæsar was esteemed the handsomest man in those times, and was skilled in all kinds of exercises; he was indefatigable, brave, and generous to excess, but withal ambitious. Nature, which seemed to have formed him for the government of mankind, had given him such an air of empire, as added dignity to his deportment, which was softened by a sweet and engaging carriage. The insinuating and invincible thunder of his eloquence resulted more from the gracefulness of his person than the strength of his arguments; and he began by insinuating himself into the hearts of the people, as the surest means of obtaining those honours to which he aspired.

Cæsar, though born only a private citizen, had, from his youth, formed a design of one day raising himself to that power, which might enable him to give laws to the commonwealth; nor was he at least intimidated when he reflected on the danger of so great an attempt. Mar-
rius

rius and Sylla were uppermost in his thoughts, and their example taught him, that there was nothing, which bravery and resolution could not conquer. Happily for him, he was prudent even in these immoderate designs, and waited patiently till proper opportunities offered themselves.

In the seventeenth year of his age he was made high-priest of Jupiter ; and, after having carried his arms into Asia, at his return went to Rhodes, to complete his studies under Apollonius Melo. From thence he returned to Rome, where he was created military tribune, and a little after quæstor. In this capacity he was sent into Spain, in order to visit the assemblies, and administer justice. As he passed through Cadiz, he visited the temple of Hercules, and seeing there the picture of Alexander the Great, he wept on reflecting, that he had done no glorious action, at an age in which that king had subdued the world.

While Cæsar was in Spain, he employed his whole time in extending its frontiers, and carried his arms into Gallicia and Lusitania, which he made a Roman province. He was not, however, forgetful of his own private interest ; for he extorted all the gold and silver he could get at in those provinces, and, on his return to Rome, was received with the universal acclamations of the people.

Cæsar, being now returned to Rome, put up for the consulate, when he lavished the wealth he had amassed in Spain, in getting new creatures, to whom his house was open at all times,

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times, and from whom he concealed nothing but his heart. He found, however, that the affections of the people singly would not be sufficient for his purpose, and he concluded it would be impossible for him ever to arrive at sovereign authority, unless he obtained the command of the armies, and could procure a great number of friends, and even a party in the senate. The assembly was then divided between Pompey and Crassus, who were competitors for the government.

Cæsar now resolved, as the only probable means he had at present of arriving at power, to endeavour to reconcile Pompey and Crassus, and unite himself with them. He succeeded in his design, and these three men now agreed, that nothing should be transacted in the republic, in opposition to their respective interests, or without their approbation; and this they confirmed with the most solemn oaths.

In this manner was formed the first grand triumvirate, which totally subverted both the consular and popular state, the whole power being now vested in the hands of the three greatest men in Rome, as to valour, authority and riches. Thus fell the liberty of Rome, owing to venality and corruption, after having made such an illustrious figure for so many ages. It is no wonder, that it was soon after plunged into the greatest miseries, as it was impossible the triumvirs should long agree together. It is true they had sworn to support each others interest; but oaths are only the foot-stool of ambition,

ambition, which they trample on the moment it can assist them to climb higher.

This triumvirate was formed about fifty-eight years before the birth of our Saviour, and in the year of Rome 694, at which time the Roman dominions were almost unlimited, containing all Italy, the greatest part of Gallia, all Spain, Africa, Greece, and Illyricum; all the kingdoms of Asia Minor, with Syria, Judæa, Armenia, Media, and Mesopotomia. So great was the grandeur of Rome at this time, that it was at once the dread and admiration of the whole world : her lands were fertile, her generals invincible, and her revenues inexhaustible ; her inhabitants were innumerable, and she was become the favourite seat of the Muses and the polite arts. But, alas, she was distempered by feuds, jealousies and factions, and it was easy to foresee, that the union of these three great men could not be of long duration, and that the breaking of that knot was big with the most disastrous events.

CHAP. X.

*From the Commencement of the Triumvirate to the
Year of Rome 706.*

ROME became now a prey to the ambition of Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, by whose authority all employments in the commonwealth were arbitrarily filled up just as they pleased. Crassus was insatiable in the pursuit of riches, having no other idol than gold; Pompey lived in ease and indolence, contented with the bare name of greatness and power; while Cæsar was indefatigable in strengthening his own party, and lessening that of the other two; but this he did with so much art as to give neither of them umbrage.

Cæsar and Bibulus being now elected consuls, the former confirmed all Pompey's acts, according to an agreement between them. He now set about artfully sowing a division between Pompey and the senate, and the senate and the people, and preferred a law, for dividing certain lands in Campania among 20,000 of the poorer citizens, who had three children or more. This proposal gave high satisfaction to the Plebeians, and Cæsar had drawn it up in such plausible and just terms, as left but little room for controverting it. The senate, however, opposed it strongly, but Pompey and Crassus both approved it; and the former being asked his opinion by the senate, declared, that should any man oppose it with his drawn sword, he

he would not only unsheathe his own, but take up a shield also. The law, however, passed, and Pompey, by his last speech, rendered himself completely odious to the senate.

From this period, Cæsar troubled the senate very little, and his colleague, Bibulus, was driven out of the Forum by the populace, who broke his fasces, and wounded his lictors, after which he dared not to appear any more in public. In the mean time, Cæsar managed every thing, and disposed matters just as he pleased. The government of Syria was afterwards given to Crassus, which he had requested, in hopes of acquiring additional riches; and Spain was allotted to Pompey, which he governed by his lieutenants, not being able to persuade himself to abandon the pleasures of Rome. Thus these three men divided the world among them, as though it had been their natural inheritance.

Cato in vain exclaimed against this prostitution of the commonwealth; whom Cæsar found means to put under an arrest, nor were Lucullus and Cicero much better treated. The abilities of Cicero had offended Cæsar, who was now bent on his ruin; and, for this purpose, he even condescended to associate himself with Clodius, Cicero's mortal enemy, and got him elected one of the tribunes, though he had, but a short time before, been accused of criminal conversation with Cæsar's wife.

In consequence of this, Cicero was soon afterwards accused before the people of having illegally put to death Lentulus, Cethegus, and the rest of the conspirators, contrary to law.

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Cicero, now seeing the danger to which he was exposed, forgot himself so far, as to dress himself meanly, and, letting his beard and hair grow, went about the city, imploring the protection of the great men; but, at last, finding himself deserted, he found he must either take up arms, or quit Rome; which last, Cato, and the rest of his friends, advised him to. He accordingly left the city in the night-time, and went to Sicily. Clodius then banished him, by the votes of the people, 400 miles from Italy, demolished all his houses, and disposed of his goods by public sale.

After sixteen months banishment, Cicero was recalled, when all the cities, through which he passed, paid him such singular honours, as in some measure to represent a continual triumph; and, when he approached Rome, the equites, and all the people, went out to congratulate him on his return.

Cæsar now chose the government of Gaul, that being an object which would afford him an opportunity of displaying his valour and military skill, hoping, at the same time, to enrich himself with the plunder of that country. His first battle, about the year of Rome 696, was with the Helvetians, or Swiss, whose army consisted of upwards of 300,000 men, whom he entirely defeated, leaving them hardly 100,000. In this battle their wives and children fought with the greatest obstinacy, till they were all entirely demolished.

He afterwards entered Germany, where he carried every thing before him; and, in the following

following year, turned his arms against the Belgæ, who inhabited a part of Gaul, and was considered as the most formidable people in those parts. Their army consisted of near 300,000 men, when he attacked them, and obtained a complete victory. He then turned his arms against the Nervii, who, attacking his troops unexpectedly, broke his cavalry, and surrounding two of his legions, killed his officers, and would have cut them all to pieces, had not Cæsar come to their assistance. The Nervii, however, were all of them at last demolished. The fame of Cæsar's military exploits being every where spread, many nations sent ambassadors, and submitted themselves to him.

In the year of Rome 698, Cæsar took up his head quarters at Laura in Italy, where a multitude of people went to pay him their respects, and among them near 400 senators, prætors, and proconsuls. The same year Pompey and Crassus were chosen consuls, more by the force of arms than any other means, who continued Cæsar five years longer in the government of Gaul.

The next year, having made some conquests in Germany, he returned to Gaul, and resolved to cross into Britain, which was so very hazardous an enterprize, that none but Cæsar would have attempted it. Of all the difficulties, that of a pretence for his intended invasion was the least. Cæsar embarked with two legions, and coming to Dover cliffs, as is generally imagined, he saw them covered with troops. He stayed here some hours, till he was joined

by the other ships, and then sailed two leagues further, whither the Britons followed him with their chariots and cavalry. After moving towards the coast, as the Romans delayed to plunge into the water, their vessels not being able to get near enough the shore, the standard-bearer of the tenth legion leaped in, and cried out aloud, "Follow me, fellow soldiers, unless you will suffer the Roman eagle to fall into the hands of the enemy." Animated by this singular mark of courage, the soldiers followed him, and blood and slaughter ensued.

The Britons instantly attacked the Romans, and fought in the water with so much resolution, that, in all probability, the latter must have been repulsed, had not Cæsar taken care to supply them, from time to time, with fresh recruits. The Britons, overcome by numbers, were at last obliged to give way, and the Romans so well improved this advantage, that they at last put them to flight. Being now terrified at the Roman valour, they sued for peace, which Cæsar granted them. A favourable opportunity afterwards happening, the Britons again took to arms; but, being a second time defeated, were once more reduced to sue for peace.

During this interval, the senate being informed of what Cæsar had done in Britain, gave orders for a solemn festival to be held in honour of him, which was to continue twenty days. All this mighty parade was granted him for an action, which was of little consequence to the commonwealth, but occasioned the

the slaughter of some thousands of men. Thus Cæsar, and even the Roman senate, thought nothing of sacrificing the lives of mortals to their false ambition, and the vain love of momentary glory.

In the year of Rome 700, Cæsar resolved on a second expedition to Britain, and accordingly made all the preparations necessary for that expedition. He landed without opposition; and, though the Britons were successful in some attacks, they were entirely defeated at last.

If we take a critical review of Cæsar, we shall find, that the commonwealth had never given birth to a more able commander; though it must be owned, at the same time, that his unbounded ambition, and his insatiable thirst after riches, which he courted for the sake of corrupting those who might oppose his designs, sullied the glory of all his conquests. Venality prevailed in the camp, and he plundered even the temples of the gods, nor spared the allies of the Romans. Cato, and the rest of the senators, wished to bring him to an account, but the magnificence of his conquests, the blindness of the people, and the senators he had bribed, overturned every attempt of this nature. So far from punishing him for his crimes, sacrifices were offered to the gods for his sacrilegious actions, and his vices were considered as virtues.

Pompey now began to see his mistake, and resolved, if possible, to ruin Cæsar, whose elevation he considered himself as the sole cause of. He had already a great ascendancy over
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the senate; and, in order to ingratiate himself with the people, he built a magnificent theatre, in which plays and other spectacles were exhibited. As it was in Rome, so is it now with almost every other state. The great sometimes condescend to shew the vulgar a favour, with no other view, than that they may assist them in their ambitious designs, which, when obtained, prove the ruin of those that were the cause of it. Those in power use tyranny and oppression; those who want to obtain it, flattery and deceit.

In the mean time, Crassus, being on his march, plundered the temple of Jerusalem of 10,000 talents; and, on every occasion, shewed himself more avaricious than heroic. He was careless of taking any advantage of the enemy, who at last engaged him, and obtained a complete victory. In this engagement his son lost his life, and he himself, being afterwards betrayed, was killed also. The Parthians, in this battle, killed 20,000 Romans, and took 13,000 prisoners. The person, who killed Crassus, cut off his head and his right hand, and carried them to the Parthian king, who ordered melted gold to be poured down his throat, upbraiding him with these words: "Glut thyself now with that gold, with which in thy life-time, thou wast never to be satisfied!" One of the principals of the triumvirate being thus no more, it was easy to foresee that a violent struggle would ensue between the other two, who, for some time past, had broke off all professions of friendship.

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To such a height was corruption now got in Rome, that employments were sold in the most public manner; nor were the chiefs of the different factions less cautious in taking bribes, and, where they could not carry their point by the number of votes, never failed to call in force and violence. In fact, no office was now obtained till it had been contested with the sword, and the blood of some citizens shed on the occasion. In one of these scenes of confusion, Clodius was murdered by Milo, and the body was exposed all bloody to the people, who thereupon broke all the seats of the magistrates, made a funeral pile of them, and set it on fire, when all the magnificent buildings, in which the magistrates used to assemble, were, with the body of Clodius, reduced to ashes. So many people were afterwards murdered, that it became dangerous to walk the city unarmed.

Hereupon Pompey was elected dictator, and had great authority given him, which encreased his number of friends in the senate; nor did those of Cæsar decrease, who, by means of bribes, and the fame of his heroic actions, found his party very powerful in Rome. Cæsar, having finished the war in Gaul, which had been the most dangerous, though the most glorious, he had ever undertaken, he sued for the consulship, and desired to have the time of his government prolonged.

In the mean time, matters seemed to run against Cæsar in the senate; but, as he was informed of every thing that was transacting in Rome,

Rome, he concerted his measures accordingly. Cæsar, exasperated at the little respect paid him by the senate, immediately passed the Alps at the head of his third legion, and halted at Ravenna, from whence he wrote to the senate. His letter concluded with, "If I have not justice immediately done me, I will march to Rome." These last words filled the assembly with horror, and Cæsar was commanded to resign his army, on pain of being declared an enemy to his country. This decree of the senate was as a declaration of war, and both parties had immediately recourse to arms. Mark Anthony, the tribune, Curio and Cassius, in the habits of slaves, quitted the city, and went over to Cæsar.

Cæsar immediately retired secretly from Ravenna, and went and joined his army, which was then near the Rubicon. He there found about 5000 foot, and 300 horse, and with these inconsiderable forces he began the civil war. He halted some time on the banks of the Rubicon, reflecting on the miseries and calamities inseparable from intestine wars: "If I do not cross this river, (said he to himself) I am ruined; and, should I pass it, what multitudes shall I ruin!" After ruminating some time, and the animosity of his enemies presenting itself to his mind, he plunged into the river, and cried out, "Let us go whither the omens of the gods, and the injustice of our enemies, call us: the dye is cast."

The army having crossed the Rubicon, Cæsar tore his robe in the presence of the tribunes of
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the people, and implored the protection of his soldiers, when they all cried out, with loud acclamations, that they were ready to die in the service of their general. He then marched with all possible expedition, and took Ariminum, which diffused terror all over Italy. The senate met several times; but, so great was the consternation, that they could come to no conclusion. Pompey having no troops, nor any place to which he could retire, was under some uneasiness; and the senate, and Cato in particular, reproached him for having thus suffered himself to be seduced by the artifices of Cæsar.

Pompey resolved to move the seat of war to Apulia, fearing, should he oblige the people to take up arms, they might turn those arms against him. At Apulia were two legions, which Cæsar had resigned to him; and, having endeavoured, in an oration, to persuade the senators to follow him, several of them, with the consuls, left Rome in the night, and accompanied Pompey, being determined to share with him his fortune.

C H A P. XI.

*From the Year of Rome 706, to the Death of
Julius Cæsar.*

ABOUT this time, Cæsar made himself master of Picenum; and, having obtained some other advantages, before he set out for Spain, in order to drive Pompey's veterans from thence, he marched first to Rome, to settle some kind of government there. Having taking 3000 pounds weight of gold out of the treasury, he left Rome, saying, that he was going to attack an army without a general, and that then he would go and combat a general without any army.

After several skirmishes and battles on both sides, the armies of Pompey and Cæsar met on the plains of Pharsalia. In these armies was the flower of the Roman legions, whose bravery was to determine the fate of that mighty empire. The animosity and ambition of their chiefs, who were fired with the hopes of riches and glory, that must necessarily follow the conquest of this day, made every one conclude, that a general battle was unavoidable. Pompey, having twice the number of soldiers to what Cæsar had, thought himself sure of victory; and his soldiers even quarrelled among themselves about the share of plunder.

Cæsar employed his time in a different manner: he exerted his utmost skill to improve his soldiers, and inspire them with vigour and activity. Hearing that Pompey's army was
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drawn up in order of battle, he told his troops, with an air of the highest satisfaction, that the long-wished-for moment was arrived, in which it was in their power to gain immortal honour. Having thus spoken, he advanced with his troops towards the field of battle. Pompey was very much disturbed by ill omens, but nevertheless exhorted his soldiers to behave courageously. As the armies approached, the two generals rode from rank to rank, to animate their soldiers. The signal was then given for battle, and the contest on both sides was long and bloody, and seemed for some time equal. Pompey's cavalry charged with great vigour, and obliged the enemy to give ground. Cæsar instantly advanced with his reserved corps, and, attacking the faces of the enemy with their pikes, these knights were soon broken, and thrown into disorder. Cæsar pursued the advantage with so much vigour, that they were at last overpowered. The auxiliaries began the flight, though Pompey's right wing maintained their ground with great bravery. At this instant, Cæsar ordering his men to cry aloud, "Kill the foreigners, but save the Romans." the latter threw down their arms and received quarter. Mean time a dreadful slaughter was made of the foreigners, who were flying with the utmost precipitation.

After the battle, Pompey did not act consistent with that character he had hitherto borne; but, mounting a horse, went to Larissa, and from thence to the sea-shore. The rich furniture, and other things which were found in

Pompey's camp, were a convincing proof how much luxury had prevailed there. There fell in this memorable battle 15,000, and 24,000 surrendered prisoners.

Pompey, lately that great and powerful commander, was now obliged, with a few friends only, to retreat to a fisherman's bark, from whence he got on board another vessel, and made all possible sail. His misfortunes had now so completely conquered him, that he forgot to make use of those advantages he still had at sea, being master of a powerful and victorious fleet. Pompey fled to the island of Lesbos, where he had before sent Cornelia, his wife, and Sextus, his younger son, whom he took with him from Lesbos to Cyprus, and from thence came to Egypt.

Pompey had been a great friend to Auletes, the father of the young Egyptian king, and it was chiefly through the influence of this illustrious Roman, that he was restored to his kingdom: he therefore expected to be assisted and received with equal kindness by the son. Pompey, on his drawing near to land, sent messengers to Ptolomy, to require his protection, and aid him in his present distress. The king was then only 13 years of age, and therefore consulted his ministers what answer to return. At last, after various opinions, it was thought most expedient to dispatch him. Achilles with Septimus, a Roman commander, were sent to execute this horrid deed.

They went to take Pompey on board a small boat, under pretence that great vessels could not approach the shore without much difficulty.

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The troops were drawn up on the sea side, as with a design to honour Pompey, with Ptolemy at their head. Pompey embraced Cornelia, (alas, little did he think for the last time!) and entered the boat, where he was shamefully murdered, in the sight of his wife, and the young king. The murderers cut off his head, and threw his body on the sand, where it had no other funeral, than what one of his freedmen gave it, with the assistance of an old Roman, who was there by accident. Thus unworthily ended the life of Pompey the Great, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

Cornelia had seen Pompey massacred before her eyes; and it is easier to imagine the condition of a woman in the height of grief from so tragical a scene, than to describe it. The Roman ships made off to sea with all imaginable speed. Cornelia and Sextus escaped first to Tyre, and from thence into Africa; but most of the other ships were taken by the Egyptian galleys, and all on board them cruelly put to the sword, among whom was Lucius Lentulus, the late consul, who, obstinately rejecting all the proposals that had been made by Cæsar, was the author of this fatal war.

In the mean time, Cæsar made all possible haste to arrive in Egypt, where he suspected Pompey had retired, and was in hopes of finding him alive. He came to Alexandria with two legions, and 800 horse. In these legions were not above 3200 men; but Cæsar confided so much in the fame of his exploits, that he thought every place would entertain him

with safety. On his arrival at Alexandria he was informed of Pompey's death, and soon after, on his entering the place, he was presented with his head. At the sight of it he wept, and turned his face from it with abhorrence, as from an ungrateful spectacle, and ordered it to be buried in a proper place, with all honourable solemnities.

As Cæsar was going out of his ship, he heard a clamour of the soldiers, which the king had left to guard the city, and saw a concourse of people gathered about him, because the fasces were carried before him, which made the populace cry out, that it diminished the authority of their king. This tumult was soon quelled; but others happened every day, in which many soldiers were slain. Cæsar therefore sent for some other legions out of Asia, as he was obliged to continue at Alexandria, on account of the Etesian winds then blowing from the north, which prevented his sailing from thence.

In the mean time, he employed himself in calling in the debt due to him from Auletes, and in hearing and determining the controversy between Ptolemy and Cleopatra. Auletes had engaged the interest of Cæsar by a bribe of 10,000 talents, part of which was unpaid, and now exacted by Cæsar with rigour. The case of Cleopatra and Auletes, being at this time to be argued before Cæsar, advocates were appointed on both sides to plead the cause.

Cleopatra, hearing that Cæsar was unboundedly fond of women, laid a plot to attach him first to her person, and then to her cause; for she

she was a woman, who made nothing of prostituting her person to any one, either through passion or interest. She desired Cæsar to permit her to come in person, that she might plead her own cause before him. This being easily granted, she was privately conveyed into the city by her own servant, who carried her on his back, tied up in her bedding, to Cæsar's apartment in the citadel, where he threw down his burden, untied it, and up started the lady, with the best airs she could put on. Cæsar was pleased with her stratagem, and smitten with her beauty, which had all the effects she wished for. He lay with her that night, and afterwards had by her a son, who was named Cæsarian.

The next morning Cæsar sent for Ptolemy, and pressed him to receive his sister again upon her own terms; at which the young king was so much enraged, that he ran out of the palace into the street, tore the diadem from his head, and complained to the people, that he was betrayed. In a moment the whole city was in an uproar, and the populace came on tumultuously to assist their king, whose person was seized by the Romans, which quelled the Egyptians, who were assured by Cæsar, that they would be fully satisfied with the judgment he should pass.

The next day Cæsar summoned an assembly of the people, before whom he brought out Ptolemy and Cleopatra; and, after having caused the will of the late king to be read, he decreed that they should reign jointly in Egypt, according to the tenor of that will; and, further, that Ptolemy, the younger son, and Ar-

Arfinoe, the younger daughter, should reign in Cyprus. This contented the whole assembly, except Photinus, who dreaded the resentment of Cleopatra, and not only created new discontents among the people, but also prevailed with Achilles to bring his army from Pelusium to Alexandria, to drive Cæsar out of it. Achilles had 20,000 good troops, and thought to overcome Cæsar immediately; but this great Roman posted his little army so judiciously, that he easily sustained the assault. Achilles then marched against the port, with an intention to seize the fleet, and shut up Cæsar by sea; but he also frustrated this attempt, by burning the Egyptian fleet, which consisted of fifty galleys, and twenty-two large ships. He then took possession of the tower of Pharos, which he garrisoned, and by this means preserved his communication by sea, without which he had been effectually ruined. Cæsar also fortified himself in the strongest quarter of the city, from whence Arfinoe escaped to Achilles; and such, he says, was the beginning of the Alexandrian war, at which place he concludes his commentaries.

Some of the ships, when on fire, drove to the shore, and communicated their flames to the adjoining houses; and, spreading into that quarter of the city called Bruchium, consumed the noble library there, which had been the collection of several ages, and then contained 400,000 volumes. Such was the loss the sons of literature sustained by the ravages of war.

Cæsar

Cæsar sent for succours to all the adjacent parts, while the eunuch Ganymedes, put Achilles to death, and succeeded him in the command of the Egyptian army, as also the administration of all other affairs. He contrived many stratagems to distress Cæsar during this war; and, in particular, he found means to spoil all the fresh water in his quarter, and was very near destroying him by that means, there being no other fresh water in Alexandria, but that of the Nile, which was kept in vaulted reservoirs in every house, supplied from the river by a canal, which communication he stopped, and turned the sea water into the reservoirs; but Cæsar sunk wells so deep that he found springs, which supplied him with fresh water again.

Cæsar afterwards defeated Ganymedes in three naval engagements, and was joined by a legion sent by Calvinus, while a considerable army was assembling for him in Syria and Cilicia, under Mithridates of Pergamus, who entered Egypt, and took Pelusium by storm. In the second sea-fight, Cæsar had like to have perished. By attempting to take the town in the island of Pharos, and the mole leading to it, he was repulsed with the loss of about 800 men, and had like to have been lost himself in the rout; for, finding the ship, in which he endeavoured to escape ready to sink, by reason of the number of those who had crowded into it, he threw himself into the sea, and with difficulty got off by swimming to another of his ships in the port: while he thus made his escape, he carried some valuable papers, which
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he had about him, in one hand, and swam with the other, whereby he saved both them and himself.

Cæsar was persuaded to send king Ptolemy to the Egyptian army, in compliance with their desire, and on a promise of peace; but, when they found they had their king at their head, they pushed on the war with greater vigour than before. Mithridates advanced with his army, and defeated a body of Egyptians, who defended the banks of the Nile. Ptolemy then advanced with his whole army to oppose the victors, and Cæsar marched to support them. A decisive battle ensued, in which Cæsar obtained a complete victory. Ptolemy endeavoured to escape in a boat, which sunk, and he was drowned in the Nile. Cæsar then returned to Alexandria, and all Egypt submitted to the conqueror.

Cæsar gave the crown of Egypt to Cleopatra, in conjunction with Ptolemy her younger brother, who was only eleven years of age. The passion, which Cæsar had conceived for that princess, was probably the sole cause of his embarking in so dangerous a war; and his affection for her kept him much longer in Egypt than his affairs required. He passed whole nights in feasting with her, and even intended to marry her; but, after continuing some months in Egypt, he was obliged to quit it, to oppose Pharnaces, son of the great Mithridates. Pharnaces being conquered, and endeavouring to break into Bosphorus, was repulsed and slain by Asander, who had revolted from him.

him. Thus deservedly fell a man, so rebellious to his father, and ungrateful to his friends.

After this he set out for Rome with the utmost diligence, having settled his affairs in these parts as well as time would permit. No sooner had he arrived in Italy, than Cicero, and many others of Pompey's party, met him, and congratulated him on his return. Cæsar received them in the kindest manner, which paved the way for making every thing quiet in the commonwealth.

In the year of Rome 708, the time of Cæsar's dictatorship being expired, he was elected consul with Æmilius Lepidus. However, he was obliged to quit Rome, Scipio, Cato, and Juba, king of Numidia, having raised forces in Africa, where Cæsar landed, and totally defeated them. Juba would have retired with Petreius to Zama, which was the strongest city in his dominions; but the inhabitants refused him admittance, and gave his treasures to Cæsar. Juba resolutely determined not to survive this misfortune, and agreeing with Petreius that they should kill each other, the latter fell dead on the spot; but Juba, having received only a slight wound, was obliged to ask the assistance of a slave to dispatch him.

As to Cato, he retreated to Utica, and there established a kind of senate, which consisted of 300 Romans. He at first intended to stand a siege; but, finding the inhabitants were not to be relied on, he changed his resolution, and advised his friends, either to escape by sea, or submit to the mercy of Cæsar. He embraced
them

them with uncommon tenderness, and discoursed on moral subjects, of which this was the theme: "The virtuous are only happy and free, and the wicked are ever wretched and slaves."

His sons, suspecting he had some design on himself, at supper, took his sword from him, which he did not then miss. He afterwards threw himself on his bed, and read Plato's Dialogue on the Immortality of the Soul; then missing his sword, which not being brought him so soon as he expected, he fell into a violent passion. At last, his friends, bringing it to him, implored him not to lay violent hands on himself, but to continue among them, as their only genius, guardian, and protector. On receiving his sword, he felt the point of it, and said, "I am now my own master." He then read again, and afterwards fell into a sound sleep. At day-break he awoke, when he stabbed himself; but not doing it effectually, he staggered, and threw down a table, the noise of which brought in his slaves, his friends, and his sons, who found him weltering in his gore. His physician replaced his bowels, and sewed up the wound; but Cato, afterwards coming to himself, tore open the wound, and rushed out of life with fury, rage and indignation, which finished Cæsar's war in Africa.

Whether the manner, in which this great republican put a period to his life, was justifiable or not, has ever since been a matter of much dispute. I must own, that he did not herein, act conformably to his own system of philosophy;

philosophy; and, if we try him by the laws of christianity, he will still appear more culpable. Life is but a short summer's campaign, in which we have many battles to fight, many breaches to mount, many strong fortresses to storm. The prudent general, however unfortunate he may have been for a long time, experience teaches us, often proves at last successful, and gives us a convincing proof, that it is cowardice to despair, though, in all human appearance, every thing seems lost. I am, however, for allowing Cato some favourable circumstances: we must consider the age in which he lived, and the barbarity of those times, in which suicide was not forbidden by either religion or laws. Shall Cato become the sport and mockery of those people; to whom he once gave laws? Shall he live to see his country, once the seat of sweet liberty and freedom, become the den of tyranny and oppression: her laws subverted, venality and corruption carrying every thing before them, and that once fair and stately city Rome, the mistress of the world, now, through faction and party, precipitating into a pile of ruins?

Cæsar hereupon returned to Rome, and triumphed four times in one month: first for Gaul; then for Egypt, in which Arsinoë was loaded with chains; his third triumph was for Pontus, and king Pharnaces; and his last for Africa, in which the younger Juba was exposed. He then began to settle the commonwealth, enacted new laws, and committed judical matters to the senators and knights only. With
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the assistance of some of the ablest astronomers he reformed the calendar, regulated the year according to the course of the sun, allotting to each year 365 days, and added one day more to every fourth year, which was called the *Bissexile*, or Leap year.

The last war, in which Cæsar was engaged, about the year of Rome 709, and which had like to have proved fatal to him, was against Pompey's two sons, who had a powerful army in Spain. A decisive battle was fought in the plains of Munda, in which Cæsar was more melancholy than usual, and, perhaps, reflected on the instability of terrestrial affairs. He began to distrust so long a series of prosperity; and, seeing himself arrived to the same height of glory, to which Pompey had once attained, he was fearful of experiencing the same fate. He now saw, what he believed could have never come to pass: his veteran soldiers, after fourteen years service in the field, gave ground, and would have fled, had not shame prevented them. Cæsar, in his distraction and despair, leaped from his horse, and ran to them with the utmost fury. He stopped the fugitives, re-animated them, and flying from rank to rank, was every where in an instant. Victory was now wrested from the enemy, which fortune seemed to have given them, and 30,000 of them were killed on the spot. Cæsar had been exposed to so much danger in this battle, as occasioned him frequently to say, that, on all other occasions he had fought for glory, but at Munda, to save his life.

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After this he returned to Rome, and had the honour of a triumph; but he did not meet with the same universal acclamations as formerly. The name of Pompey was still dear to the Romans, and they grieved to see his whole family thus almost extirpated. Extraordinary honours were, however, heaped on Cæsar, and Rome seemed to have nothing left but the shadow of liberty. He was allowed to assist at all games in a gilded chair, and a golden crown on his head; which crown and chair, after his death, was decreed to be exhibited at all public sports, to perpetuate his memory. These honours were heaped on him by the senate only to render him odious to the people, and thereby bring about his ruin. His enemies detested his ambition, and the most zealous republicans resolved to die, rather than be eye-witnesses to the total ruin of their liberties.

Upwards of sixty senators entered into a conspiracy to destroy Cæsar, Brutus and Cassius being at the head of this combination. Brutus was the soldier and scholar; but he never drew his sword with any other design than to serve his country, nor read with any other purpose than to subdue his passions. In all his actions, he strictly adhered to justice and honour, and all he said, as well as all he did, seemed to flow from a public and unbiassed spirit. Every man in the commonwealth, who loved himself, loved Brutus.

Though Brutus was the avowed enemy of absolute power, yet he could not prevail on himself to hate the usurper, who had indulged

him on so many occasions. It was the love of his country, the strongest of all human ties, and that only, which could prevail on him to join the conspiracy; nor had Cassius less obligations to Cæsar than Brutus, having in battle received from that conqueror life and quarter. Cassius, however, engaged in this conspiracy, not out of any love to his country, but to satiate his unjust revenge.

The conspirators carried on their plot with all imaginable caution and secrecy; and, the better to justify their designs, deferred it till the Ides of March, on which day Cæsar was to be declared king. A famous augur told Cæsar, that great dangers threatened him on the Ides of March; and those writers, who would add horror to the description of this day, tell us, "that the world bore a gloom and heavy preface of Cæsar's fate; that wild beasts came into the most frequented parts of the city, apparitions in the streets, illuminations in the skies, and that inauspicious sacrifices damped the hearts of all men, except the assassins, who, with an incredible serenity of mind, waited the approaching opportunity of sacrificing the usurper."

Cæsar's wife, having had frightful and ominous dreams the preceding night, persuaded him not to go abroad that day; but Decimus Brutus, one of the conspirators, calling on him in the morning, and laughing at those silly omens, took him by the hand, and led him out of his house. As Cæsar was going into the senate house, he met the augur, who had forewarned

warned him of the dangers of that day : “ The Ides of March are come,” said Cæsar. “ True, (replied the augur) but they are not yet past.”

Scarce had Cæsar taken his seat, but all the assassins pressed about him, and sued for favours which they knew would not be granted. The sign was given : immediately, one, oppressed with the greatness of the attempt, made an ir-resolute pass at him. Cæsar then rushed upon Casca, and beat him to the ground ; but, while they were struggling, another of the conspirators came behind him, and plunged his dagger in his bosom : at the same time, Cassius wounded him in the face, and Brutus in the thigh. Till this time he had made a very vigorous resistance, but now made no more, and, submitting to the strokes of a person, who owed to him his life, he only uttered these words, “ And thou too, my son, Brutus !” Cæsar used to call him by this tender name, supposing him to be his illegitimate son by an intrigue with Servilia. Growing now faint with the loss of blood, he reeled to Pompey’s statue, where, covering his face with his robe, and drawing his skirts to his knees, that he might fall decently, he sunk down and expired, having received twenty-three wounds.

Cæsar had long before been advised by his friends, to be more cautious of the security of his person, and not to walk, as was his common practice, among the people, without arms, or any one to defend him ; but to these admonitions he always replied, “ He, that lives in

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fear of death, every moment feels its tortures; I will die but once." At last, thus fell, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, the conqueror of the Gauls, of Pompey, and the senate, the master of the Roman republic and the world, who died without uttering the least complaint, or shewing any mark of grief or weakness.

C H A P. XII.

From the Death of Julius Cæsar to the End of the Commonwealth.

AFTER the murder of Cæsar, every thing was in a state of anarchy and confusion. Had the conspirators properly considered, they might have easily foreseen, that the death of Cæsar would not put an end to the invasion of their liberties ; but that it would give rise to fresh civil commotions, and endanger the ruin of the commonwealth. It was natural to suppose, that, as the unlimited power of Cæsar had been the envy of the great men, as soon as he was taken off, many would be candidates to succeed him, as presently will evidently appear.

Anthony and Lepidus resolved to revenge Cæsar's murder. Anthony, the next day read Cæsar's will to the people, in which Octavius was appointed his successor ; and, in case he died without issue, Decimus Brutus, one of the principal conspirators, was to succeed him ; large legacies were likewise given to the people, who were hereupon so charmed with Cæsar's goodness, and so enraged against his assassins, that they found themselves obliged for the present to quit the city, in order to preserve their lives.

In the mean time, Octavius, Cæsar's heir, arrived at Rome. He resolved to revenge Cæsar's murder, and to support his own preten-

sions, though at the hazard of his life. He landed first at Brundisium, where the soldiers resorted to him in crowds, and, overjoyed to see so near a relation of their former general, gave up the town to him, and hereupon he assumed the name of Cæsar, by which name we shall hereafter call him. He then marched boldly towards Rome, attended only by a few domestics; but was joined in his way by all his father's friends, his freed-men, and the veteran soldiers; on whom Cæsar had bestowed lands in Italy. Money was brought him from all quarters, and, at his coming near the capitol, he was met by the greatest part of the magistrates, the officers and people.

Long, and alternately successful, were the disputes between Cæsar and Anthony, which last aimed at nothing less than the destruction of the former, that he might thereby arrive at sovereign power. Cæsar was sensible of this, and took all possible care to avoid the snares laid for him: sometimes they would feign a friendship for each other, though the rankest hatred subsisted between them.

In the year of Rome 711, Anthony, by virtue of the orders of the people, though contrary to those of the senate, took upon him the government of Gallia Cisalpina; and, after winning most of the cities of that province, actually besieged D. Brutus in Modena. This so exasperated the senate, that he was soon after declared an enemy to the commonwealth, and immediately sent Cæsar to the relief of Brutus. Thus the dictator's adopted son was seen marching,

ing, under his enemies standards, to succour one of his father's assassins; but the design of Cæsar was not so much to relieve Brutus, as to ruin Anthony.

A general battle being fought near Modena, Anthony was there defeated, after a great slaughter. He then fled to Gallia Transalpina, where Lepidus, Plancus, and Asinius Pollio, were at the head of a considerable body of forces, hoping they would assist him. Cæsar, after this victory, finding himself only the tool of the senate, resolved on accommodating matters with Anthony, and managed things so well, that he not only got himself elected consul, but obliged the senate solemnly to renounce all the decrees that had been enacted against Anthony, Dolabella, and others; and likewise to condemn Brutus, Cassius, and their several accomplices.

Decimus afterwards endeavouring, with a few attendants to pass through Gaul, was taken and betrayed at Aquileia by Sequanus, governor of that country, who sent his head to Anthony. Much about the same time, Trebonius, another of the conspirators, was taken, and, after being put to grievous torments, his head was struck off, and kicked about in a most contemptuous manner by the soldiers.

Differences being at last accommodated between Cæsar and Anthony, it was agreed they, in conjunction with Lepidus, should invest themselves with the supreme authority during five years, under the name of Triumviri. It was also agreed, that Anthony should have all
Gaul,

Gaul, except Narbonne, which Lepidus was to have with Spain; whilst Cæsar was to possess Africa, Sicily, and Sardinia, with the other islands, and that Italy, and the Eastern provinces, should continue for a time in common. In this manner did three men again divide the empire of the world; but of these, two were too great long to be satisfied with a division of power.

They further agreed, to their eternal infamy, to destroy all their enemies, on which occasion Cicero caused the greatest controversy. Anthony was his implacable enemy, and would come to no firm accommodation, till his destruction was determined. Lepidus, who was little better than a tool, consented to this. Cæsar, on account of his former friendship, would have spared his life; but, at last, he ignominiously consented to his death. They proscribed 300 senators, and upwards of 2000 knights, so that Rome was now in a most horrible situation, nothing being heard but cries and lamentations in every part of it, and murders were every where committed by the soldiers.

The triumviri carried their inhumanity to such lengths, as to give up to one another their nearest relations. Lepidus sacrificed his brother Paulus to his two colleagues; Mark Anthony abandoned to Cæsar his uncle Lucius; and Cæsar gave up to Anthony, Cicero, to whom he was bound by the strictest obligations. Cicero, while on his flight, seeing ruffians coming towards him, ordered his litter to be set down, and quietly submitted his neck to Pomponius

ponius Lena, whom he before had saved from condemnation. This wretch cut off his hands and his head, and carried them to Anthony, who insulted over them. Some authors tell us, that it was his custom to have the heads of those, whom he had proscribed, brought upon his table, and that he there used to feed his eyes a long time with this cruel spectacle. Fulvia, his wife, says Dion, spit upon Cicero's head, and, laying it in her lap, pulled out the tongue, and pierced it several times with her bodkin. The head and hands, being afterwards, by order of the cruel Anthony, fixed upon the rostrum, the people were struck with horror, to see the remains of a man, whose unequalled eloquence had so often triumphed in that very place. Thus fell, about the sixty-fourth year of his age, the greatest orator the world ever produced.

About the year of Rome 712, a decisive battle was fought, in which Anthony commanded on one side, and Marcus Brutus and Cassius on the other. Victory declared for Anthony; on which Cassius, by his own order, was killed by his servant, and Brutus fell upon his sword, and expired. Such was the end of Brutus and Cassius, who, as some relate, died by the same weapons with which they had stabbed Cæsar. The Triumviri, by this victory, established their empire on the ruins of the commonwealth, its liberties being buried in the plains of Pharsalia, with Brutus and Cassius, the last Roman republicans.

Cæsar then returned to Italy, and Anthony, after visiting Athens, where he was present at the conferences of the philosophers, crossed into Asia with all his troops, to establish the authority of the triumvirate. Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, (who had poisoned her younger brother, that she might reign alone) met him at Tarsus in Cilicia, which proved his destruction; for her beauty, wit and art, enflamed him almost to madness, and extinguished all his military ardour.

Cleopatra was then twenty-five years of age, when the graces of her person were more powerful than the magnificence of her dress. The brilliancy of her equipage, on entering the river Cydnus, will hardly admit of a description. The poop of her ship flamed with gold, the sails were of purple silk, and the oars inlaid with silver. A pavilion of cloth of gold was raised upon the deck, under which appeared the queen robed like Venus, and surrounded with the most beautiful virgins of her court, of whom some represented the Nereids, and others the Graces. Instead of trumpets were heard flutes, hautboys, harps, and such other musical instruments, warbling the softest airs, to which the oars kept time, and rendered the harmony enchanting. Perfumes were burnt on the deck, which spread their odours to a great distance on the river, whose shores were covered with an infinite number of people, crying out, that Venus was coming to make Bacchus a visit for the good of Asia.

Great feasts were every day made between Anthony and Cleopatra; and it was at this time, that Arsinoë, Cleopatra's sister, was, at the request of that cruel queen, put to death. It was also, at one of these feasts, that Cleopatra had two of the finest pearls in her ears that were ever seen, each of which being valued at about 50,000 pounds sterling. She melted one of these pearls in vinegar and swallowed it. She would have done the same by the other, but was prevented. This other pearl was afterwards consecrated to Venus by Augustus, who carried it from Alexandria to Rome.

Cleopatra accompanied Anthony as far as Tyre, and he followed her to Alexandria, where they spent the whole winter in a most scandalous excess of luxury and effeminacy. Anthony afterwards returned to Rome, and married Octavia, the sister of Cæsar, and widow of Marcellus; but he still retained his fondness for Cleopatra, and met her at Lucecome in Phœnicia, from whence he returned with her to Egypt, where he indulged his inordinate passion for this lascivious woman to the highest excess of voluptuousness. He gave her Phœnicia, the lower Syria, and Cyprus, with great part of Cilicia, Judæa and Arabia. He also made her a present of the libraries of Pergamus, in which were above 200,000 volumes, and she placed them in a new library, which she built where the former stood. She had a taste for polite learning and the sciences, and understood several languages. She omitted no kind of arts to keep Anthony in her chains, and he en-
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tered Alexandria in triumph, dragging at his chariot wheels the king of Armenia, laden with golden chains, and presented him in that condition to Cleopatra, who was pleased to see a captive king at her feet. At one of their banquets, when Anthony was intoxicated with wine, she presumed to ask him to give her the Roman empire, which he was not ashamed to promise her.

In the mean time, and about the year of Rome 717, Cæsar having triumphed over all the republicans, thought it time to break with his colleagues. He wanted to reign singly, and was therefore determined, if possible, to rid himself of them. He easily removed Lepidus, who, being little esteemed by his soldiers, was abandoned by them in the midst of his camp, which Cæsar became master of by his artful conduct and secret negotiations. Lepidus was afterwards reduced to such an abject state, as to become even the pity of his enemies.

Cleopatra had two sons by Anthony, one of whom was called Alexander, and the other Ptolemy. He heaped a profusion of honours on these young princes, and celebrated the coronation of their mother with the utmost magnificence. Matters being carried to this pitch by Anthony, he gave great disgust to the Romans, and particularly to Octavia, his wife; she set out to meet Anthony with Cæsar's consent, who gave it with no other view, but that Anthony's passion for Cleopatra, might induce him to act dishonourably by Octavia; and thereby encreas-
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ing the indignation of the Romans against Anthony, he should have a plausible pretence for drawing his sword against him.

Every thing succeeded to Cæsar's wishes; for Octavia received a letter from Anthony, in which she was ordered to come no further than Athens, and accordingly she there stopped. Cleopatra, who very much dreaded the charms and virtues of Octavia, employed all her artifice to prevent Anthony's giving her a meeting. She assumed an air of melancholy, and would frequently let fall a tear on his approach, which she would wipe away immediately, affecting to conceal her weakness and grief. This had its desired effect; for he at last ordered Octavia to return to Rome. On her return, she took the greatest care of her family, and behaved in such a manner as procured her immortal honour. She loved her husband in spite of his ill usage, and could not bear to think, that his ungenerous treatment of her should again kindle the flames of a civil war. How opposite was the character of Octavia to that of Cleopatra: how amiable does the former appear even amidst repeated insults; and how contemptible the latter amidst the parade of magnificence!

Anthony now suffered himself to be persuaded to divorce Octavia, and declare war against Cæsar, both which he accordingly did. He then assembled his forces at Samos, where he and Cleopatra lived as luxuriously as they had done in Egypt. Here several kings had orders to send arms, provisions and soldiers; and

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others

others to send musicians, dancers and buffoons; so that frequently, when a ship was thought to come loaded with military stores, it proved to be only scenes, players and machines.

Anthony's temper, however, began at last to be much soured, and he even suspected, that Cleopatra had designs on his life, and would never eat of any thing till she had first tasted it. Cleopatra, perceiving his suspicion, poisoned the tops of the flowers, with which she and Anthony, according to the custom of those times, were crowned with at their meals. Anthony being enflamed with wine, Cleopatra proposed drinking their flowers; on which he instantly broke off the tops of them with his fingers, and, throwing them into a goblet of wine, was going to drink them, when Cleopatra stopped him, saying, "I am the person, whom you suspect of designing to poison you; but now judge, whether I should want opportunities to dispatch you, were you become tiresome to me, or I could live without you." then ordering a prisoner to be brought in, who had been sentenced to die, she obliged him to drink off the liquor, when he expired immediately. This rivetted Anthony's fetters beyond all hopes of shaking them off.

Cæsar had now got his forces together; for Anthony, being lost in luxury and effeminacy with Cleopatra, had given him time to recruit, who might otherwise have been totally ruined, had Anthony come upon him before he was prepared. Anthony's fleet consisted of 500 large ships, on board which was an army of 200,000
foot,

foot, and 22,000 horse. Cæsar had only 250 ships, 80,000 foot, and 12,000 horse. Anthony was advised by his ablest officers not to engage by sea; but, Cleopatra advising the contrary, they came to a general engagement near the city of Actium in Epirus, in sight of both armies. Victory was for some time doubtful, till the retreat of Cleopatra, who fled with the whole Egyptian Squadron, and was precipitately followed by Anthony, declared every thing lost; for Anthony's army immediately submitted to Cæsar.

Anthony and Cleopatra escaped to Alexandria, where she put many great persons to death, fearing, since the defeat she had met with, they might take up arms against her. To avoid falling into the hands of Cæsar, she formed the very extraordinary design of having her ships, in the Mediterranean, carried into the Red-Sea, over the Isthmus of seventy miles; but in this she was prevented by the Arabians, who burnt them all. Anthony, finding himself deserted by all his followers, for some time secluded himself from company in his house, which he called Timonium, where he pretended to act the part of Timon the man-hater; but he soon returned to the arms of Cleopatra, and with her revelled away the remainder of his life.

They agreed to send ambassadors to Cæsar to sue for peace; and Anthony submitted to the meanness, of demanding life of him upon the shameful conditions of passing it at Athens as a private person, if Cæsar would assure Egypt to Cleopatra and her children. The queen,

however, was so treacherous as to give private orders to her ambassadors to mention her only in the treaty. Cæsar would not admit Anthony's ambassadors to an audience; but he gave a favourable reception to those of the queen, he being particularly desirous of securing her person to adorn his triumph, and her treasures to enable him to pay the debts he had contracted, to defray the expences of the war.

The ambassadors proving unsuccessful, Anthony endeavoured to extinguish in himself the sense of his present misfortunes, and the apprehension of those that threatened him, by abandoning himself to feasting and voluptuousness. Cleopatra and he regaled themselves alternately, and emulously contended to exceed each other in the incredible magnificence of their banquets. Cleopatra, however, foresaw what might happen, and collected all sorts of poison, to try which of them occasioned death with the least pain. She made the experiment of their virtues and strength upon condemned criminals, whereby she found, that the strongest poisons caused death the soonest, but with great torment; and that those, which are gentle, brought an easy but slow death. She tried the bitings of venomous creatures, and caused various kinds of serpents to be applied to different persons. She every day made these experiments, and discovered, at length, that the asp was the only one that caused neither torture nor convulsions, and which, throwing the person bit into an immediate heaviness and stupefaction, attended with a slight sweating upon the

the face, and a numbness of all the organs of sense, gently extinguished life : so that those, in that condition, were angry when any one awakened them, or endeavoured to make them rise, like people exceedingly sleepy. This was the poison she fixed upon ; but applied herself with extraordinary solicitude in caressing Anthony, to dispel his suspicions and complaints.

Cæsar, being fully sensible, that it was of the highest importance to him, not to leave his victory unfinished, invested Pelusium, and summoned the governor to open the gates. Seleucus, who commanded there for Cleopatra, had received secret orders upon that head, and surrendered the place without waiting for a siege. Such was the wickedness of this queen, in whom the most odious vices were complicated ; she absolutely renounced all modesty, had a violent propensity to fraud, injustice and cruelty ; and, what is worse than all, was a most detestable hypocrite. While the rumour of this treason spread in the city, Cleopatra ordered her most precious moveables to be carried to a place of security. Adjoining to the temple of Isis, she had caused tombs and halls to be erected, superb as well for their beauty and magnificence, as their loftiness and extent. Hither she removed all her gold, silver, jewels, ebony, ivory, and a large quantity of perfumes and aromatic wood, as if she intended to raise a funeral pile, upon which she would consume herself with her treasures. Cæsar was alarmed on being informed of this, and daily dispatched messengers to her, giving her the greatest hopes of the

the most kind and generous treatment ; while he advanced towards the city with hasty marches.

Upon Cæsar's arrival there, he encamped near the Hipporome, and was in hopes of soon making himself master of the city, by means of the intelligence he held with Cleopatra, on which he relied no less than on his army. Anthony, being ignorant of her intrigues, prepared for an obstinate defence. He made a vigorous sally, and returned victorious into the city, which was the last effort of his expiring genius ; for, after this exploit, his fortitude and sense of glory forsook him, or were no more of service to him. Instead of pursuing his victory, and keeping a watchful eye over Cleopatra who betrayed him, he flew to her in his armour, and threw himself at her feet. The palace echoed with acclamations, as though the siege had been raised, and Anthony and Cleopatra spent that day and part of the night in the most abandoned folly.

Anthony now resolved to make the last attempt both by sea and land, with a fixed resolution to conquer or die. He ordered his attendants to fill him out wine plentifully, saying, " This may be, perhaps, the last service you will be able to do me ; for to-morrow you may change your master, when I, stretched on the ground, shall be no more." On the approach of day, Anthony drew up his forces on some rising ground out of the city, and from thence beheld his galleys, which were rowing out of the port, and going to attack those of Cæsar ; but how shall I express his astonishment,

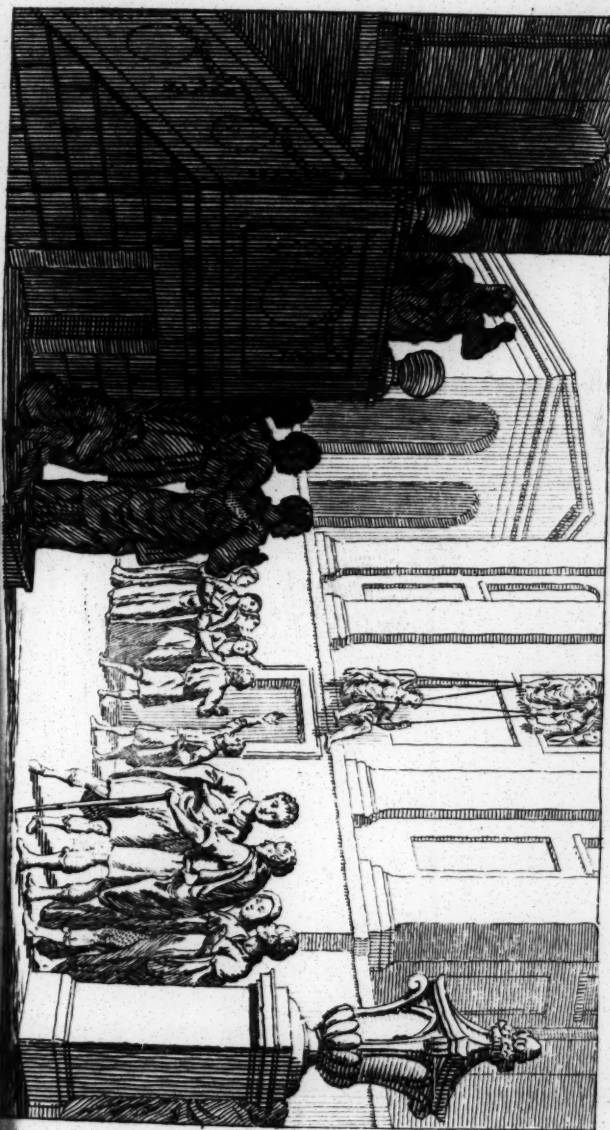
ment, when he beheld his admiral delivering up his fleet to his enemy! At the same time, his cavalry, seeing this, deserted him, and went over to Cæsar, when his infantry was obliged to submit. Unhappy Anthony, in vain do you fly to the palace to seek Cleopatra, that you may murder her for her perfidy, for she is not there; the ignominious wretch is retired!

Cleopatra had secured herself from his fury among the tombs, which quarter was fortified with good walls, and the gates were shut. She caused Anthony to be told, that she had destroyed herself, and chose her own sepulchre, among those of her ancestors. Struck with the idea of her death, he passed immediately from the excess of rage to the most violent transports of grief, and thought only of following her to the grave. Having taken this resolution, he shut himself up in his apartment with a freed-man, whom he had caused to take off his armour, and commanded him to plunge his dagger into his bosom: but his servant, full of affection, respect, and fidelity for his master, stabbed himself with it, and fell dead at his feet. Anthony, looking upon this action as an example for him to follow, thrust his sword into his body, and fell upon the floor in a torrent of his blood, which he mingled with that of his faithful servant.

At that moment an officer came to let him know, that Cleopatra was alive. He no sooner heard her name pronounced, than he opened his dying eyes, suffered his wounds to be dressed, and caused himself to be carried to the
fort,

fort, where she had shut herself up. Cleopatra would not permit the gates to be opened to give him entrance, for fear of some surprise; but she appeared at a lofty window, from whence she threw down chains and cords. Anthony was made fast to these, and Cleopatra, assisted by two women, who were the only persons she had brought with her into the tombs, drew him up. Never was there a more moving sight. Anthony, all bathed in his blood, with death painted in his face, was dragged up in the air, turning his dying eyes, and extending his feeble hands, to Cleopatra, as if to conjure her to receive his last breath; while she, with her features distorted, and her arms strained, pulled the cord with her whole strength. When she had drawn him up to her, and placed him on a bed, she threw her clothes upon him, and, making the most mournful exclamations, cut off his hair, according to the superstition of the Pagans, who believed that was a relief to those who died a violent death. Her cries recalling his fainting spirits, and seeing the affliction she was in, he told her, with a view to comfort her, that he should die in peace, since he should expire in her arms, and that he did not blush at his defeat, since he had been vanquished by Romans. Having thus spoken, he expired, being then in the fifty-third year of his age. His death put an end to all the civil wars, and gave Cæsar an opportunity of completing his ambitious designs.

Procureius arrived from Cæsar, who could not refrain shedding tears on this melancholy occasion,





occasion, which was aggravated by the bloody sword that was presented to him. This Roman had received particular orders to seize Cleopatra, and, if possible, to bring her alive to Cæsar. The queen refused to go with him, but permitted him to speak to her from without. Proculeius, after having observed the situation of the sepulchre, went and informed Cæsar of his observations. Cæsar then sent Gallus to speak with her, which he did in the same manner as Proculeius. In the mean time, the latter bringing a ladder, and being followed by two officers, got in at the window where Anthony had been drawn up, and went down to the gate, where Cleopatra was talking to Gallus. One of her female attendants seeing him, shrieked and cried, "Ill fated princess, thou art taken!" Cleopatra had raised a dagger to stab herself, when Proculeius, catching her in his arms, "You injure, said he, both Cæsar and yourself, in attempting to deprive him of so noble an opportunity to exert his clemency." He seized her dagger, and shook her robes, to discover if any poison was concealed under them. Cæsar then sent a freed-man to guard Cleopatra, ordering him to use her like a queen, but to prevent her from laying violent hands on herself.

Cæsar then entered Alexandria without further opposition, and gave Cleopatra fair hopes of the kindest treatment; though he intended only to pervert her treasure to his own purposes, and reserve her person to grace his triumph; but, when he had both in his power, he disregarded

garded her, and she found she had no other means of avoiding the disgrace of adding to the glory of his triumph, than by putting a period to her life. Cæsar went and paid her a visit, when she endeavoured to captivate that young conqueror, as she before had Julius Cæsar and Anthony; but, alas, the charm was now broken! Cæsar, with the utmost coolness, only advised her not to despond, declaring, that he would treat her with all possible tenderness. He gave her leave to dispose of her jewels as she thought proper; and, after giving her the kindest assurances, he left her. Cæsar imagined he had artfully over-reached Cleopatra, by inspiring her with the love of life, which he in fact, wished to prolong only for the sake of his triumph; but herein he soon found his mistake.

Cæsar had before given Cleopatra leave to bury Anthony, which she did with the utmost magnificence, sparing no cost in his interment. According to the custom of Egypt, she caused his body to be embalmed with the most exquisite perfumes of the East, and placed it among the tombs of the Egyptian kings.

Cleopatra, hearing that Cæsar intended to send her and her children away within three days, she conjured him to let her pay her last oblations to the manes of Anthony, which he granted. She then visited Anthony's tomb, strewing it with flowers, and watering it with tears. She then returned to her chamber, went into a bath, and from thence to table, where a splendid entertainment was prepared. When
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She rose from table, she wrote a letter to Cæsar, wherein she earnestly desired to be laid in the same tomb with Anthony: and, having made all quit her chamber, except her two women, she shut the door, sat down upon a bed, and asked for a basket of figs, which a peasant had lately brought. This supposed peasant was one of the queen's domestics, who had eluded the vigilance of the guards. She placed the basket by her, and a moment after lay down, as if she had fallen asleep: but that was the effect of the asp, which was concealed among the fruit, and had stung her in the arm, which she had held to it. The poison immediately communicated itself to the heart, and killed her without pain.

Thus died this princess, whose wit and beauty had made so much noise in the world, in the year of Rome 724, after having reigned twenty-two years, from the death of her father, twelve whereof she had passed with Anthony, and in the thirty-ninth year of her age. She was a woman of great parts, as well as of great vice and wickedness, and spoke several languages with the utmost readiness; for, besides being well skilled in Greek and Latin, she could converse with Ethiopians, Troglodites, Jews, Arabians, Syrians, Medes, and Persians, without an interpreter, and always gave to such as were of these nations, as often as they had occasion to address her, an answer in their own language. In her death ended the reign of the Ptolemies in Egypt, after it had continued, from the death of Alexander, 294 years.

Learn hence, my fair readers, how dangerous is the possession of wit and beauty, where prudence and virtue are wanting. The young lady, on whom heaven has bestowed an uncommon share of natural abilities, if she neglects to improve it by the practice of every social virtue, will, like the wretched Cleopatra, turn those blessings to punishments, in making her ruin the more public, and her memory the more detested. Ease, pleasures and luxuries, are too apt to lull the mind into a state of imaginary security, which throws virtue off its guard, and exposes the deluded fair to the most fatal dangers. Surrounded, in the bloom of life, by a crowd of admirers, who are ever ready to offer up the incense of flattery and adulation at the shrine of beauty, they are early accustomed to admire such declarations, and form such a plan for their future conduct, as pave the way to their ruin. Remember, that female virtue, once lost, is never to be regained.

But, to return, Cæsar, on the receipt of Cleopatra's letter, instantly dispatched a messenger to her; but he found her dead on a golden couch, dressed in royal robes, and looking like one asleep, with one of her maids dead at her feet, and the other expiring. Cæsar was very much troubled at Cleopatra's death, as it robbed him of the noblest ornament of his triumph, though he could not but admire the greatness of her courage. He ordered her body to be buried near that of Anthony, agreeable to her request, which was accordingly done with the greatest funeral pomp. Her women had also a pompous

pompous interment, in memory of their fidelity. After Cleopatra's death, Egypt was made a Roman province, and governed by a præfect sent from Rome for that purpose.

Cæsar, having now greatly enlarged the Roman dominions, was received at Rome as a conqueror, who had put an end to the miseries and calamities of most nations. He triumphed three days successively with extraordinary magnificence; first for Illyricum, secondly for the victory at Actium, and thirdly for the conquest of Egypt. On this occasion the temple of Janus was shut, which was the third time since the foundation of Rome, after having stood open 205 years.

Cæsar, now considering himself as supreme governor of the Roman empire, resolved to shew all the clemency of a wise prince, and the art of a refined politician. His first care was to make the adherents of Anthony his friends; after this he gave splendid entertainments to those in power, and amused the people with shows and plays. He regulated the many abuses that had crept into the state, banished corruption from the senate, and allowed the people the free possession of their liberties. Having settled every thing in the most excellent order, a variety of thoughts crowded on his mind, and he reflected for a considerable time, whether he should continue to rule the empire, or restore it to its former state. Sylla and Julius Cæsar were two examples too recent to be so soon forgotten: the former, by giving up his power, was suffered to die peaceably in

his bed ; whereas the latter, by maintaining it, was assassinated by the hands of his best friends, who afterwards triumphed in the deed.

Not being able to determine for himself, he consulted his two best friends, Agrippa and Mecænas. Agrippa advised him to resign it ; but Mecænas was of a different opinion. He insisted on it, that it would be impossible for the state to subsist but under a monarch, whose person and power would be equally secure under a mild and wise administration. He followed the advice of Mecænas ; and, though he offered the senate to resign it, he had no intention of so doing. The senate and people, however, all refused to accept his resignation : so that he had the pleasure of being forced to accept of that which he wished for.

Cæsar, in order to appear the less fond of the power they had voted him, immediately declared, that he would not accept of sovereign dignity for more than five years ; but he continued to enjoy it thirty years after the expiration of that term. However fond Cæsar might be of power, it is certain he employed all his care in settling the empire on a happy and lasting foundation ; and, during the rest of his life, acted with so much justice and clemency, that, after his death, it was said of him, that it had been well he had never been born, or never died.

The Romans were now arrived to the highest pitch of perfection, with respect to literature, arts and sciences. There flourished at this time, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Tibullus and Propertius,

Propertius, all inimitable poets; and besides them, Livy, that immortal Roman Historian. Happily, those men of genius lived in the times of Cæsar and Mæcenas, who were the greatest encouragers of learning that perhaps ever existed.

About the year of Rome 727, the number of inhabitants are said to have amounted to 4,063,000; nor is this much to be wondered at, when it is said, that the city and suburbs of Rome were at this time fifty miles in compass. The provinces were then divided, and all public affairs settled, when the name of Augustus was added to that of Cæsar, as intimating something more than mortal. Here ended the greatest commonwealth upon earth, and at the same time began the greatest monarchy, which made so great a figure, that, for many years, it was thought to be immortal. The Romans were, at this time, masters of almost the whole Globe. Never had that nation before seen such happy days: wars no longer desolated mankind; but the improvement of arts and sciences rendered them humane and happy: peace and plenty poured forth her gifts in abundance; and their monarch, the source of all these blessings, became their idol.

Though we have completed the plan we set out on, that of giving a Roman History from the foundation of Rome to the end of the commonwealth, it may not, nevertheless, be improper to observe, that Augustus Cæsar died a natural death in the eighty-sixth year of his age, in Atella, a town of Campania, and was buried

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ried at the Campus Martius at Rome. He was looked upon as a god; for hardly ever was there a man more successful in war, or more moderate in peace, enjoying the empire with universal satisfaction. He was liberal to all, and most faithful to his friends, whom he raised to such great honours, that they almost equalled his own elevated sphere.



F I N I S.

